The Nation.

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The Week.

THE decision of the Senate committee on finance not to grant hearings on the tariff bill is most judicious and cheering. It will cut off the earnings of a lot of lobbyists and attorneys, but will injuriously affect no other industry whatever. What could the committee "hear" that it and everybody else in the country has not heard a thousand times already? It would do just as much good to all concerned if the protectionists were allowed to set up an apparatus of the nature of a Buddhist praying-machine in the committee-room, inscribe on it their well-known mottoes, "We shall be ruined," "Give us protection or we die," "Pity the sorrows of an aged infant industry," set it going, and then set themselves going on the way home. The Senate has now a fine chance to reinstate itself in public esteem and vindicate its right to be considered a body for the despatch of public business, and not merely a harbor of refuge for the filibuster and the crank. The committee on finance seems disposed to do its part, and it can securely count upon the backing of all sections of the business world in trying to force prompt action on the Wilson bill. Everybody is agreed that the bill is ultimately to pass, and even protectionist business men are clamorous for the thing to be done quickly. If the Senate cares to save the last remaining shreds of public respect which it still possesses, it will reduce the palaver and delay to the smallest possible limits.

The passage by the Senate of the House bill repealing the federal-election laws, and its signature by the President, ends a long agitation. While all of the Republicans in the Senate but one opposed repeal, there is nothing like such unanimity among the members of the party. The more candid admit that the laws in question have utterly failed of their purpose, and in many cases have led to the grossest abuses. In short, where these laws have not been useless, they have been worse than useless, and it will be a gain to the cause of good government to remove them from the statute-book.

In the year 1873 the price of silver in the London market was 59¼d. per ounce. The fluctuations were very slight, and this was the average price throughout the year. The London quotation a week ago to-day was 29⅝d. In other words, the price has fallen 50 per cent. during the past twenty years. Each of our silver dollars has the metallic value of half a dollar. The continuous decline of the metal attracts very little attention here, as our Uncle Samuel has gone out of business as a pawnbroker, and is no longer making advances on the metal. In India, however, the trouble continues because the Government undertook to make a fixed rate of exchange between the rupee and the sovereign, or, in the language of the street, it attempted to "peg the market." The task was too great. The upset price of 16d. per rupee was not maintained a week. The rate fell to 15¼d., and lingered there for some weeks, but finally the public refused to buy Council bills at that figure. Sales ceased and the Government began to borrow money for current expenses. By and by borrowing came to an end, and the authorities having charge of Indian finance were compelled to face the reality and sell Council bills for what they would bring. The price is nearly 3d. higher than the selling rate of silver would justify if the Indian mints were open. In fact, the rupee has a scarcity value, but not such a scarcity value as was anticipated for it when the demonetization was ordered. The metallic value of the rupee still governs its exchange value to a considerable extent, though not entirely. Although Indian finance is thus disturbed, we hear nothing of the crash of British finance which the international bimetallists predicted as a consequence of the decline of silver. We must do Mr. Bland the justice to say that he never "took any stock" in that crash or in international bimetallism anyway. He looked upon it as humbug from the very beginning, and so did his allies in the silver-mining States.

The debate in the House on Friday brought out the fact that the aim of Mr. Bland's seigniorage bill, so called, is to cause a suspension of gold payments in a roundabout way. The plan is to retire and cancel all the Treasury notes of 1890 and substitute silver certificates for them, and then refuse to redeem the silver certificates in anything except silver dollars. All this proceeds upon the theory that the act of 1890, which declares it to be the established policy of the Government "to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio or such ratio as may be established by law," does not include silver certificates. Gen Tracey was entirely correct when he said in the debate that silver certificates were, under this clause, redeemable in gold, the same as Treasury notes. It is true that the practice of the Treasury Department under Secretary Foster was to redeem the Treasury notes in gold, but not the silver certificates. This practice was adopted under the influence of a Treasury Department panic and with a futile idea that it would tend to check the exportation of gold. It had no such effect. The practice adopted by Mr. Foster was followed by Mr. Carlisle simply because it was an existing practice, and because the Department does not change its rulings until somebody asks it to do so. Nobody has asked it to change this ruling, because nobody has had any interest to do so, but it is plain to the simplest understanding that the clause which we have quoted from the act of 1890 makes no discrimination between different kinds of paper, but speaks only of metals. Therefore, whatever rule applies to Treasury notes applies to silver certificates. Mr. Bland's plan for forcing upon the public two different kinds of money by his seigniorage bill will fail. If it should succeed, the better kind would be in the hands of the rich, and the worse in the hands of the poor, and Mr. Bland would probably be mobbed by his victims. The *Journal of Commerce* has very positive information that the President will veto the Bland bill if it passes, and that the veto will be sustained.

The agents of the Pocahontas Coal Company of Philadelphia address a letter to the *Engineering and Mining Journal* setting forth the disastrous way in which Nova Scotia coal is going to rob American coal of "the Eastern market," in case the Wilson bill becomes a law. They state that the Whitney syndicate has issued a prospectus from which it may be inferred that Nova Scotia coal can be put on board at Louisburg at $1, despite the fact that the official Government report gives the actual cost as $1.30 a ton. The thing is to be done, it seems, by the employment of "coolie labor"; and when we add that other nefarious practice of foreigners, a base resort to "tramp steamers" for the sole purpose of getting low freights, it will be clear that the gloomy prospect of seeing coal sold at their docks at $2 a ton is now before the people of Boston. Nothing can prevent such a calamity from befalling them, as the Pocahontas agents patriotically point out, but the retention of a duty of 75 cents a ton on coal and the saving of "the Eastern market" for Pennsylvania.

But the editor of the *Engineering and Mining Journal* replies to the Pennsylvania patriots in a truly heartless fashion. He reminds them that their own coal can be mined at a cost of 50 to 55 cents a ton, with or without coolie labor, and is cruel enough to quote the boast of their own shipping agent that Pocahontas coal had been sent

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to Quebec, "going past the Nova Scotia mines, and competing with them in their own market." Finally, he cites the figures of our exports of bituminous and anthracite coal to Canada and to other foreign countries, setting them beside the corresponding statistics for Canada, and comes to the conclusion that Canadian coals cannot possibly compete with ours, even under free trade, "except in a few markets near her own mines." Right there is his fatal error. In no part of the home market must a foreigner be allowed to sell his unsanctified coal, as Senator Hoar calls it. The old idea that it was a fine thing for a city to have a good harbor and ready access to foreign markets by the sea, has long since been exploded. It is right in the teeth of democratic equality. What right has Boston to get coal any cheaper than Cincinnati? Protection is the great democrat that levels up the opportunities of all cities and sections of the country, and leaves them all in perfect equality as the victims of monopoly.

The *Independent* is dumfounded at the extraordinary fact that "the religious papers which defend the President's action in reference to Hawaii seem to be representatives of the colored churches." Nearly all the white religious papers, like the *Sun* and the *Independent*, are in favor of international robbery and of disregarding the rights of the native majority in the Islands, but these perverse religious papers of the colored people are refusing to follow those who have "the right to be their trusted advisers." But it is precisely because they are acting upon the principles taught them by their trusted advisers, lo! these many years, that the religious papers of the blacks are several shades whiter morally than the religious papers of the whites in their treatment of the Hawaiian question. They are simply maintaining that it is as true in Hawaii as in the United States that human rights do not depend upon the color of the skin, and that for a handful of white men to trample upon the rights and desires of great numbers of black men is as wicked and tyrannous in Honolulu as it is in Charleston. It is the trusted adviser who has gone wrong, and has left the first principles of morality to be expounded by his former pupils.

A new development of election frauds has been reached in Michigan, where it appears that two amendments to the Constitution, voted upon in different years, were reported as carried, although in each case a majority of the ballots actually cast was against the proposed change. Each amendment contemplated an increase of salary, and in the second case two of the Board of Canvassers were officials whose pay would be raised if the change were made. In 1891 the question of increasing the attorney-general's salary from $800 to $2,500 was submitted to the people, and reported by the canvassers to have been carried in the affirmative; whereas it now appears that the returns from one county where a heavy adverse vote was cast were thrown out on a merely technical objection, and the returns from other counties were altered so as to increase the vote in its favor. In 1893 another amendment was submitted which proposed to increase the salaries of the Governor, secretary of state, and treasurer, and was returned as carried by about 2,000 majority, whereas it is now shown that there was an adverse majority of a great many thousands, the returns from twenty-five counties having been changed to produce this result. In Wayne County, which includes Detroit, the votes of dozens of precincts were changed in each year by placing the figure 1 before the true figures, so as to make 39, for instance, 139. Both parties are involved in these frauds, the Democrats having controlled the State government in 1891 and the Republicans being in power last year. The present Governor is a Republican, and he has taken prompt action in the matter, appealing to the Supreme Court to see whether the vote can be recanvassed, and calling upon the members of the State Canvassing Board, under whom the last fraud was perpetrated, to resign their offices, with the threat of removal in case of their refusal.

There is more trouble over the color line in Ohio. Six years ago the Legislature repealed the "black laws" discriminating against the negroes, and opened the public schools to white and black children alike. No sooner had this been done than a serious difficulty occurred in the town of Felicity, whose population consists of nine whites to one negro. When the negro children applied for admission at a white school, they were refused entrance, and when a negro father accompanied his children, he was roughly handled by white men. Finally the blacks were forced to accept an offer by the whites to provide separate schools for them. A year later the negroes made another effort to secure seats for their children in the regular schools, but they were again repulsed. The negroes then took the matter into the courts, and instituted proceedings against certain white persons who had obstructed negro parents when they tried to take their children inside the building; but two juries refused to convict the offenders, and the negroes had to surrender again. This time the trouble has broken out in Chillicothe. In order to keep the black children from association with the white, the board of education constructed a "shoe-string district," with the avowed intention of keeping all the colored children in one building, no matter how far they might be forced to walk to reach it. The negroes held indignation meetings and sent protests to the board, but without effect. Now they propose to appeal to the law and see if they can secure redress of their grievances. This action has provoked the whites, and has resulted in a combined movement against the blacks.

No one will suppose that the actual number of the unemployed in this city is accurately shown by the figures turned in by the police; yet we should be thankful for such an approach to accuracy as they furnish. They at once dispose of the exaggerated estimates which have been current—running all the way from 100,000 to 300,000—and give the charitable organizations of the city a more definite idea than they otherwise could have had of the problem before them. That 67,000 persons are out of work in New York city is a serious thing to consider, yet it cannot now be said that the situation here is essentially worse than in other cities of this country or Europe. In London, at the beginning of the year, 108,000 were in receipt of indoor and outdoor relief, and, of course, the numbers of the unemployed, counting in those who did not need assistance, must have been much greater. Distress of like proportion is reported from Berlin and Paris and the cities of Spain and Italy. It is no local phenomenon with which we have to deal, nor can the cause of it be merely local. Meanwhile, the immediate duty is to afford relief to the necessitous in such a way as not to impair their self-respect or deaden their spirit of self-help, and, in public affairs, to hasten action on the tariff so as to take away the uncertainty which now stands in the way of business improvement.

President Eliot of Harvard made a brief address at Boston last week in which he gave his view of the relations between Radcliffe College, as the Annex is hereafter to be called, and the University. Recalling a remark by George William Curtis in the "Easy Chair," that "it is settled that *Juliet* may study, but shall she study with *Romeo*?" he said that "we have learned in the last twenty-five years that young women are quite as capable of the higher studies as young men." He pointed out that, although there has never been any official connection with Harvard, the Annex never has had any teachers but Harvard professors and instructors, and its students have always had the same examination papers as Harvard students. He said that there were two reasons why the governing boards of the University had refused to

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give the women college degrees outright. One was that the business of the University is constantly increasing, and is already a load upon the Board of Overseers and the Corporation; and the other, that the institution cannot at present offer women all the advantages that are now offered male students, and that "until the University can give with assurance a degree with its privileges to all alike, we cannot undertake to give it at all." President Eliot thought this "a prudent and conservative state of mind," which "simply says we are not ready now," but "looks forward"; and he said of the future:

"We do not yet give the degree of bachelor of arts, but we do guarantee the quality of instruction, and just as much, subject by subject, as is given in Harvard College. This relation between the Annex and Harvard University is firm, formal, and official. This is a long step forward, and it leaves the way open, very wide open, for further steps when the time comes."

While this is a denial of the petition for the granting of Harvard degrees to women upon the same terms as men, it indicates that the time is coming at no distant day when the governing authorities of the University will feel constrained to take this "further step."

Mr. Gladstone has again disposed of the report that he was about to retire from office immediately. He has returned to London in improved health. What, under these circumstances, becomes of the "full sense of responsibility" of Mr. Astor's young men, when they were telling their story, and repeating it in defiance of authorized reports from Biarritz? Is not "journalism" the oddest thing in the world? Of course Mr. Gladstone is liable to retire at any moment. A man of eighty-five lives in the hawk's shadow. In the twinkling of an eye the golden bowl may be broken and the silver cord be loosed. But everybody knows this. Nobody has "exclusive information" about it. There is no warrant in it for the assertion that the hour has come.

The English Liberals seem to have been waiting for the action of the House of Lords on the parish-councils bill and the employers'-liability bill to commence an attack in force on that body, without apparently giving Mr. Gladstone time to return to his post. He has always shrunk from an attack on the House of Lords, partly through reverence for the old traditions of the government, and partly, doubtless, through the feeling that the reform of that body was too great a job for his time of life. That the House of Lords needed mending has, ever since the passage of the Reform Bill, been acknowledged by everybody. When the Peers filled one hundred and fifty seats in the lower house and were looked up to as great men, the two houses found no great difficulty in working together. But when the House of Commons became a popular representative body, it was easily foreseen that collisions would multiply, and that sooner or later the existence of the upper house, as at present constituted, would be endangered. That they have managed to get along together for so many years — now over sixty — has been very surprising, considering that the majority in the Lords never changes its politics, no matter what changes occur in the Commons. This has always been exasperating, but the middle class would probably have borne it for another half century. The extension of the suffrage to the working classes is rapidly bringing on a crisis, which the Lords might have postponed indefinitely by simply giving up the hereditary principle. It is now questionable whether this will satisfy the Radicals—that is, whether they will be willing to have a second chamber composed of peers elected by the whole body of the peerage, which is what the Conservative reformers have always suggested. The Irish and Scotch peers are elected in this way now. But if reform comes soon, it is probably this shape it will take. If delayed, it may result in the relegation of the peerage to that region of barren and impotent titles in which the Faubourg St.-Germain in Paris has lived so long.

What the French are to do with their anarchists is doubtless a puzzling question, but there can be little doubt that the plan of executing them steadily after the commission of their crimes is one which cannot fail to wear them out. The hanging of the four in Chicago has given peace to that city ever since. The notion that the anarchists differ greatly from other men, except in love of notoriety and dislike of labor, is undoubtedly incorrect. Those who hold that they do not fear death, forget that they try to run away when they throw a bomb, and hide as vigorously as they can. They generally belong to the species we call "tramps," that is, semi-criminal loafers, who have been persuaded that "society" is in some manner responsible for their miserable condition. Not one really unfortunate man—that is, a man for whom good character and capacity have failed to obtain work—has yet turned up among them. Vaillant had been several times convicted of larceny, and had tried all sorts of occupations unsuccessfully, because fitfully, and Ravachol was little better than a wild beast. There is probably a good deal of substance in the theory that anarchism is a wave of insanity passing over Europe like an epidemic, and that it must soon exhaust itself if it be unflinchingly met. Curiously enough, however, there was for a few days a little danger that Vaillant would not be executed, a sentimental reaction in his favor having set in. One of the pleas made for him was that his motives were good, and that in throwing his bomb he really had in view the regeneration of society, so that his execution would be, in some sort, that of a philanthropist. Any yielding, however, to any such view would probably lead to terrible destruction of life and property at the hands of other reformers.

The Paris *Temps* discourses mournfully on the inroads which the office-seeking mania—that scourge of democracy—is making on the time of the French ministers. It says that in addition to the disquiet which it diffuses among the officials, it threatens to paralyze completely the most laborious and active ministers. Their ante-rooms are filled all day long with senators, and deputies, and councillors-general, to get promotion for a substitute, or a forester, or to have punishment inflicted on some functionary who has made himself obnoxious to the local electoral committee; and this goes on every day and at all hours, so that the minister is never free except when he is sitting in the Chamber or in the Senate. There is no getting away from it. Were he to shut the door on his pursuers, he would make them all his enemies, and they would "go for" the cabinet in the Chambers. Not only must he see them, but he must be pleasant and polite to them. The least sign of impatience would be taken as a declaration of "war." Moreover, the enemy does not come down on him as single spies, but in big battalions. The whole delegation of the department waits on him about the smallest matter, so that any sign of indifference would lose him eight or nine votes. This, in a body in which the majorities of the ministry are so small and fluctuating, is very serious. What is curious about the trouble is that nobody complains of it so much as the Deputies themselves, but the remedy each proposes always is that the minister should not pay so much attention to somebody else. The *Temps* itself does not see where the cure is to come from. The disease seems to be one which all democracy has to pass through, like children's measles. When the people first find themselves really in possession of the government, as with us under Jackson, their first uncontrollable impulse seems to be to get a living out of it somehow. After this has been tried for some time, they begin slowly to perceive that only very few can get a living out of it, and that the public service is being sacrificed to these few, and then we have an agitation for reform. The number of office-seekers diminishes, the absurdity of trying to live on the government becomes more apparent, and gradually the rush subsides. This has been our experience, and we presume it will be that of the French.

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EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY POLITICS.

GEN. DRAPER of Massachusetts has an idea about the Hawaiian question which ought to be more generally understood. It was developed in his speech in the House on Saturday week. It embraces also his ideas of foreign trade. The General is a protectionist of the Chinese-wall variety. Still, he believes in trade with foreign countries if you can drive it into them with ironclads and drive other people's trade out in the same way. Here is a brief exposition of it:

"Samoa and Hawaii have been ripe to our hands for years. They are most advantageously situated for our needs, as bases from which our cruisers could work in time of war to protect our own trade and break up that of an enemy. The moral force of the United States is all that has kept European hands off these two groups to the present time, but should a strategic necessity for their occupation by either of those powers arise, moral force would lose its power, and we would have to be prepared to then fight for them or to retire at once from the absurd dog-in-the-manger position we have so long occupied."

Every student of history knows that these ideas dominated the politics of Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and led to most of the wars which disfigured and brutalized the nations in that time. The prevailing belief was identical with that which has taken possession of Mr. Draper, namely, that colonies are desirable for purposes of trade provided you can keep the ships and goods of other nations out of them. In order to do this you must have the largest navy afloat, and must seize everything that can help to make your navy efficient. In this scheme every island or convenient promontory becomes a "key" to something else, and when you have seized all the "keys" that you can hold, then you must always be armed to the teeth in order to hold them. The Caribbean Sea was reddened for two centuries with the blood of England, France, Spain, and Holland. The East Indian lands and waters were fought over for the same reasons. The American Revolution was, in large degree, a protest against the enforcement of that doctrine. The Napoleonic wars grew out of the colonial conflicts of England and France. They would hardly have been possible without the treasured hostility of a hundred years of colonial rivalry and clashing.

After sufficient blood and treasure had been wasted, and the nations were sufficiently exhausted so that they had time to think, they began to discern the truth respecting colonies and "keys." Great Britain especially found her advantage in studying the question without the smell of gunpowder. She came to the conclusion, not all at once but by slow degrees, that the exclusive trade of a colony, if you have to fight for it, is not worth having. It costs more than it comes to. She found out also, and chiefly through the American war, that colonists have rights, and that restricting their trade is a provocation to revolt. So, little by little, these colonial shackles were thrown off until now any nation may trade as freely with any British colony as Great Britain does herself. There is no differential duty and no restriction applied to French or American goods that is not applied to English goods. Therefore "keys" are no longer wanted by England to bar the door to anybody else, but only to prevent people of eighteenth-century notions (like Mr. Draper, for example) from barring the door against her.

Following the line of Mr. Draper's argument it is observed that he counts on his fingers all of England's keys, Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, and so on to Hong Kong, then around Africa and through the South Pacific, then back to the Antilles and Canada. We study his speech in vain to find out what it all comes to —what is the significance of this world-embracing chain of posts. He has not the hardihood to say that these "keys" are used to keep us from trading with any of the countries named on equal terms. Not at all. What does it all mean, then? Why all this congressional industry and display of geographical learning? Simply this, according to Mr. Draper:

"The foresighted statesmen of Great Britain have had a full understanding of the fact that the preservation intact of the circulation of British ships in the great arteries of trade is an absolute requisite to the well-being and even life of the British empire; and this it is which has guided them in the establishing around the world a complete chain of guarded stations, from which her commerce can be supplied and succored, whether peace or war prevail."

Now, if that were exactly true, we should see nothing in it except voluntary police duty on the part of Great Britain, and we should say that if she were inclined to keep so many different lands and seas in order at her own expense and oppose no obstacle to our trade with any of them, we should be much obliged. But it is not quite true. It was not British foresight which established this chain of posts. It was British blundering and blind fury in the eighteenth century—the same which Mr. Draper wants us to imitate now—that saddled the British treasury and taxpayer with the cost of fortifying and policing these posts and maintaining the navy which protects them. The posts and places being now British territory, national pride demands that they be kept, or at all events not surrendered to hostile hands. They are sometimes surrendered to friendly hands, as the Ionian Islands were surrendered to Greece and as Heligoland was bartered to Germany. What Great Britain would do now if these posts were unoccupied virgin territory we need not speculate. Of one thing we may be certain: she never would plunge into the wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in order to acquire them. No statesman of the Draper school would ever gain her ear.

THE REPUBLICAN WAR.

THE conduct of the *Tribune* in the present crisis in its party's history is so remarkable, and so mystifying to the casual reader, that we feel called upon to attempt some explanation of it. The Republican party in this State found itself, after the election of last November, in the presence of the best opportunity that had been given to it since 1885. In that year, it will be remembered, the Republicans had an excellent candidate for Governor in Mr. Davenport, and they would have elected him over Mr. Hill but for the treacherous conduct of the Blaine Republicans, under the leadership of the *Tribune*, in refusing to vote for him because the Mugwumps were supporting him. That this was the cause of Mr. Davenport's defeat was confessed with pride after election by the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, both in his paper and in private conversation. The people of the State owe to the *Tribune* and its editor the subsequent nine years of David B. Hill's degrading rule.

Now that the culmination of Hillism, embodied in the nomination of Maynard, has put the Republican party again in power, with the opportunity of increasing and retaining that power indefinitely, the same editor of the *Tribune*, working in unison with the party's other evil genius, "Tom" Platt, comes forward again to turn the party from its only honorable and successful course, and to deprive the people of the city and State of the benefits which would follow from an honest and intelligent administration of public affairs. For several weeks after the election, the *Tribune* itself was voluble with advice in this direction. It told the party that its future success depended upon its devotion to the public interests. It called for wise legislation at Albany, for a reformed ballot-law, for increased safeguards about the ballot-box, for the overthrow of bossism, for the destruction of the petty local bosses who had "sold out" the city so many times to Tammany—for everything, in short, which would make the Republican party one that self-respecting men, who were sick unto death of Tammany rule and Platt rule, could belong to and work with for the regeneration of the State.

Suddenly all this fine talk began to cease in the columns of the paper. Platt captured the organization of the Legislature and had it arranged in the interest of "deals" with Tammany rather than in the interest of good government. No protest came from the *Tribune*. There were loud demands for a thorough and sweeping investigation of Tammany Hall. Platt said he was not in favor of them. Again there was deep silence in the *Tribune*. Platt had a bi-partisan Police Board bill introduced, and at once there came from the Chamber of Commerce, the City Club, and all the representative centres of the best sentiment of this city, a pro-

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test against it, and a demand for a single-headed commission. Then the *Tribune* broke silence, and came to the support of Platt with the plea that the "mandate" of the people in the election was clearly in favor of a bi-partisan board. From that time to the present, all its influence, editorially and in its news columns, has been exerted in favor of Platt's plans. A very carefully drawn ballot-reform bill has been forwarded to Albany, with the approval of all the best political and non-political organizations in the city, including the Union League Club, the Republican Club, and the City Club, but not one word in its favor has appeared in the *Tribune*.

While these events were passing, the best elements of the Republican party in this city, acting in concert with the Union League and Republican Clubs, formulated a plan of reorganization which abolished the district bosses who had so often betrayed the party in the past, and provided a new system which, they believed, would make the organization an honest and creditable and effective working force. The *Tribune* had not a word to say in favor of this plan, but at once began to give its encouragement to a rival plan put in motion by one Milholland. This plan was really Platt's, and its object was to give him the same autocratic control of the party organization in the city which he had of that in the State. In due season Platt came out openly and gave his approval as boss to the Milholland scheme. On the day that he did this, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, who had refrained studiously from all approval of this plan, wrote with his own hand and published in an out-of-the-way corner of his paper a defence of Platt against his critics, and a plea that "Republican politics and discussion should revolve about other subjects besides Platt." This open alliance with Platt has split the party in twain from one end of the State to the other.

Milholland is a young gentleman in Mr. Reid's employ, who endeared himself to his chief by snatching from the Republican National Convention, in a moment of confusion, its nomination for Vice-President. Milholland did this with the aid of the Typographical Union, which he had brought into harmonious relations with Mr. Reid after years of conflict. The same Milholland secured through Platt, during the Harrison Administration, the office of supervising immigrant inspector at this port, and began at once to use that as a basis upon which to build up a Platt organization in this city. His indecent political activity caused Secretary Foster to remove him. In the present instance he is working as the agent of Reid and Platt, who endeavored to conceal that fact for a time in order to make their "approval" more impressive. In Monday's *Tribune* Platt persuades Reid to take the position that the Milholland movement is the regular Republican movement, and that the committee of thirty's plan is the irregular or bolting one, knowing very well that the latter was started immediately after the November election, and was well under way before the Milholland plan was devised. He persuades him to turn upon the members of the Union League Club and the committee of thirty, and rebuke them for assuming that they are better entitled to reform the party in this city than Mr. Platt of Tioga is. The passages in which the Hon. Whitelaw Reid performs this service for his partner are in his best and most delightful manner. He accuses them of "turning their backs to the common enemy," of throwing "all their energies into a rancorous and frantic attack on Republicans and friends," and asks: "What is the meaning of this sort of folly? Who are these leaders? We *hope* they will stop. We *advise* them to stop. We *warn* them to stop. Smashing heads is a foolish business for sober and responsible men to engage in—especially heads in our own ranks, instead of heads in the ranks of the common enemy—and they must reflect that in such affairs there are blows to take as well as blows to give." Platt must have fairly chuckled with delight when he read this passage, putting upon the regular wing of the party the responsibility for the fight which the firm of Platt & Reid have deliberately instigated.

THE DISMAL SCIENCE AND THE DISMAL TIMES.

It is not unusual for people who, in firm health, have had contemptuous things to say of the guesswork and quackery of physicians, to be among the loudest in crying for medical aid when disease gets its grip on them; and we believe it is the common experience of doctors that there is nothing like a widespread epidemic to heighten the general respect for their persons and their profession. Somewhat parallel has been the experience of economists during the present world-wide business depression. No class of men was more scornfully flouted during the flush times of three and four years ago. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu was nothing but a puttering old pedant when he predicted the coming crash, and the London *Economist* but a disagreeable scold. But when the immense destruction of capital in the Panama quagmire and in the Argentine sink-hole began to have its inevitable effect in dislocating credit and commerce, when our own silver madness had run its fatal course, people in general began to rub their eyes and to suspect that there was something in political economy after all.

The dismal science had, in fact, been subject to such an amount of damning and banishing to another planet during the past thirty years that, if it had had a particle of sensitiveness about it, it would have taken itself off long ago. But it is a tough and hardened science, and stayed on. Carlyle and Ruskin might show it the door with the greatest emphasis, but, like the poet's nature expelled by a fork, it always came back. An ugly presence not to be put by, it has been scowled at and cursed without stint, but has kept on about its business, refusing to be dismissed with a superior smile, until now the dismal times have brought the dismal science into something quite like repute again.

For an obvious instance of its new recognition as an authority in practical affairs, one need only turn to the modern methods of charity and poor relief. What has been put into operation in the various forms of charity organization and plans for furnishing help and work to the temporarily needy is simply the method of the economist—that is to say, careful analysis of the facts and tendencies involved, and a distinct setting forth of causes and effects. The case was excellently put in the last presidential address before the British Economic Association:

> "The emotionalist is influenced by the impression made on him by what he sees and feels—the visible, the palpable, the direct. The economist looks beyond—not at the present only, but at the future—and is swayed not only by the visible and the direct, but by the invisible, the more remote. The one is mainly impressed by the fact, the other by the consequence of the fact. The economist is not less philanthropic, not less altruistic, not less concerned with the greatest good of the greatest number; nay, rather, the emotionalist may be said to be more individualistic, while the economist ranges over a wider field. There is no field of sympathy, no department of human feeling or social obligation which does not come within the range of the economist. The emotionalist is moved by an immediate impulse at the sight of poverty to indulge in charitable relief, and that charity is often exercised without discrimination. No one will blame him. But it is the duty of the economist to point out the indirect and invisible effects of such action, and this information is needed in the interests of a wider community than that to which the charity is extended. And yet, on no field of sentiment, in no department of human feeling or social obligation, has the economist been more attacked as non-ethical than in respect of charity and the poor-law; and yet his labor has been fruitful of the best results in arresting demoralization and the weakening of self-dependence."

It makes little difference whether this is called sociology or philanthropy or what else; in fact, it is nothing more nor less than an application of the methods of political economy. The facts are studied as they exist, not on the planet Jupiter, but right here on the earth. Human nature is investigated and watched in action, and no ideal theories of man, as pure angel or as pure devil, are allowed to come in to disturb the play of economic and social forces. Attention has been called to the great number of paupers in London to-day—over 100,000 were in receipt of relief from the city at Christmas time. But what is not so often remembered is, that the

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number was even greater when the population of London was not half what it is now. This vast improvement, amounting to a reduction of pauperism by as much as 50 per cent., is attributed to the effects of an act of 1867 which gave London a separate poor-law.

How came that act to be passed? At the instance of men who had studied the problem in the spirit and by the methods of the dismal science, the Poor-Law Board, and men like Mr. Charles Villiers and Mr. Gathorne Hardy. They exposed the workings of the old poor-law, in which the emotionalist had full swing, and showed how it multiplied and intensified the very evils it was designed to abolish, how the country poor came swarming in to the feast of fat things spread for them in London, and all the rest of it. By consolidating some agencies for relief and abolishing others, by enforcing better discipline and more careful inquiry, the evil has been reduced to one-half its former proportions.

Now, the thing to remember is, that you cannot consistently approve of such methods and results and continue to curse political economy. This *is* political economy. It is only one of its many applications; but the same instruments of investigation are employed in this department of human activity as in those others known as production and commerce and finance. Yet a great many persons who think political economy repellent and its conclusions horrible, would say it was only common sense and good judgment to act in charitable relief in the ways indicated. They are economists themselves without knowing it; and if they would look into the teachings of economists in other fields, they would find there just as much common sense and good judgment. It is not really the economist, it is common sense, that stands in the way of the airy visions of some of our socialistic writers. Political economy can be nothing but a dismal science to them, and if ever they manage to get their schemes going, it will be dismaller than ever, and so will the times, for them and all the rest of the world.

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

NEW YORK, February 8, 1894.

ALTHOUGH the German universities are not as yet formally open to women, nevertheless in several of them women are and have been for some time admitted to many of the courses of lectures. This is especially the case at Leipzig; but at Heidelberg, too, at Freiburg, and quite recently at Berlin, women have been permitted to pass the portals so long sacred to the male sex. The conditions under which the rule excluding women may be thus infringed—for it must be borne in mind that it is an infringement of rule—are restricted, even humiliating. The woman student is not recognized as such except by courtesy. She is not recognized at all officially. She is not permitted to take a degree; she is not allowed even to register her name on the university lists, or to claim in any way connection with it. She may even be ordered off its premises, if caught going into the lectures by any officer of the university or any member of its faculties who is hostile to the presence of women there—and in one case within the writer's knowledge this was actually done. She is usually allowed, however—though not always—to pay her fees; and when her money is accepted, the professor concerned will give her privately the regular examination that the male student is put through, and his personal certificate testifying to her proficiency. Indeed, the arrangement, in this particular at least, is not greatly different from the back-door method by which the students of the Harvard Annex, or Radcliffe College, as it is now to be called, extract their certificates from unwilling Harvard.

In the German universities the whole matter is entirely optional with the individual professor as an individual teacher, and to him, not to the university that retains him, the would-be woman student applies. If he is not personally opposed to the higher education of women, sometimes even if he is, he will readily, often cordially and kindly, consent, for the German *Gelehrter* is generally a most good-hearted man. There is, however, in this matter of admitting women to their lectures a considerable difference among professors, and it would seem to be even more a *Fach* than an individual difference, though in this case the *Fach* may express the man no less than the man the *Fach*. For instance, the professors of art, political economy, history, mathematics, literature, the classics, and philosophy properly so called, would seem to be favorable to women about in the order named, and admission to the lectures on these subjects may almost invariably be obtained, especially at Leipzig, the least difficult of any of the universities so far as admitting women is concerned. The medical lectures, on the other hand, are quite impossible for women, though there is a larger proportion of professors in favor of admitting them in this than in any other faculty. In this case, however, something more than the option of the individual teacher is necessary to set aside the rule. Law and theology are, of course, even more absolutely closed. Indeed, the lecturer on ethics in the theological faculty of one of these universities refused a woman who wished to hear him, on the ground that ethics was a subject quite out of woman's sphere. It is to be hoped that he would not maintain the same of the practical side of his subject, and hold that morals, too, are quite out of woman's sphere. It is only fair to add that the stand taken by this *Gelehrter Herr Professor* was exceptional, and is, perhaps, best explained by the remark of another professor in the same university, but not the same faculty, to whom the woman in question related the incident: "Das war ja nur zu erwarten, mein liebes Fräulein: der Kerl ist ja ein Theolog."

The consent of the professor being the *sine qua non* of her admission, the woman student's first step is to obtain it, and she must do this in person. A proxy or even a letter is almost sure to be fatal to her hopes, whereas the application in person is almost sure to succeed. This indispensable performance is sometimes, particularly to the new hand, not a little of an ordeal, but it may have its amusing features too. Repairing to the professor's house at his *Sprechstunde* (the time he devotes to such business), the woman student will generally find a number of male students there—indeed, she is more likely than not to be ushered into a room full of them—whereat an astounded silence will fall as they realize the situation, a mental gasp as it were, then one or two, perhaps even four or five, will recover sufficiently to spring up and offer chairs, and every pair of German eyes in the room, generally rendered more formidable by glasses, will proceed to "size up" the *Emancipirte*, not rudely—the German student is seldom rude—but with the curious wonder one has for the strange beasts in a menagerie. By the time the Herr Professor's study-door is opened, however, and he stands ready to receive the next visitor, the youth whose turn it is will invariably and most gallantly insist on yielding his place to the lady, and, if this be her first experience, she is apt most gratefully to accept.

Alone with the professor, the affair is simple enough. She states her errand in the best German she can command, and if she have her mother wit about her, as well as sufficient of his mother tongue—he seldom speaks hers—she may even add that she has crossed the sea for the sole purpose of hearing him, or some such phrase, which is very apt to make him look flattered and give his consent without more ado. Not always, however, does this sort of diplomacy produce such a softening effect. There is one professor, a noted psycho-physicist, who, though he does admit properly qualified women to his courses, cannot be brought to anything like a cordial agreement to do so. "If you choose to attend my lectures, no one will interfere with you," is the non-committal sort of reply with which the applicant to him must be content.

After the professor come the lectures, and the first two or three are a test for the woman student, and, still more, for the Germans, whose customs, traditions, opinions, and prejudices she defies by intruding herself among them. They could have her ejected if they chose, but they do not. They simply stare, some aghast, some in wrath, some in ridicule. Then they observe her critically: if she takes notes, those who are near her look over her page. But by the third or fourth lecture they have made up their various minds about her, and she is generally left for the rest of the term unnoticed and in peace. If she happens to be pretty, the wonder lasts longer, for a German student cannot conceive why a pretty woman should want to be wise. *Blaue Strümpfe* and personal plainness are necessary corollaries to him, and it is a severe shock to his preconceived ideas to find the "blue-stocking" less plain than prejudice painted her. An American girl who happened not to be plain, coming out of her lecture one day, was met by two students, one of whom had evidently brought the other there to see her. "She a student!" exclaimed the one as the other nudged him. "Impossible! she's *pretty!*" and his astonishment, voiced in tones so loud she could not but hear, betrayed how hard it was for him to reconcile the apparent contradiction.

As a general thing the German student does not thus obtrude his remarks or himself, and his manners, both in the lecture-room and out of it, are very good. He will often, indeed, show, by little acts of kindness, genuine good feeling for the *Fräulein Studentin*. She need never, unless she wish, meet her male comrades personally at all, but such acquaintances are sometimes exceedingly agreeable as well as useful to her, and it is a very good thing for the German student to be given such an opportunity of finding out for himself that a woman may pursue the same severe course of study

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that he does, and yet be a woman still—a view he does not commonly hold.

As a social being the woman student will generally receive from her professors, too, some, often a great deal of, attention. It is the proper thing for all students, male and female, to call socially at the beginning of the semester on their professors and their families; if the professor is not married, the woman student does not call. An invitation to dinner or supper—usually for a Sunday—will soon follow, as an acknowledgment of the call and an assurance that further acquaintance is desired. On these occasions the wives and daughters of the professors will be met, and very ordinary women they are. There are, of course, exceptions, but as a rule the German *Gelehrter* is content to dwell at home in the dullest sort of domesticity with his ill-educated women. As his wife is, he lets his daughter grow up to be, whereas to his son he gives the liberal education he himself has had.

To return to the more serious side of the subject, the profit to any student of a course at a German university may be immense; and though the limitations at present imposed on the woman student undoubtedly diminish hers, she nevertheless may also derive a goodly share. Perhaps in no other way is the lesson of thoroughness in things intellectual to be learned so well. The German *Gelehrter* exhausts his subject, and when you have heard him through on it, you may rest assured that you have got all that there is to get in regard to it. Often, indeed, in their insistence on thoroughness, they sacrifice completeness. Instead of condensing their lectures to fit the length of the course, they plod laboriously and conscientiously on through all the details, and leave the lectures as a whole unfinished at the end. There was a certain course of the late Professor Zarncke of Leipzig University that never had been read through to the finish, having been originally written too long even for the longer semester. But this made no difference to the genial old man, who regularly began again at the beginning with the beginning of the term, and read as far as the time permitted, leaving his students to find out the rest for themselves from the guides he gave them. These and other defects of the lectures the male student can make up by means of the *Seminar*—the real class-room of the German university—but from this the woman student's sex bars her out, and she must do all the special work of her course by herself, or with a tutor, who, however, may be a member of the *Seminar*, and thus enable her indirectly to share in its advantages. It is precisely this independent work that the woman student must do that benefits her most. Forced to rely on herself and to get what she wants under difficulties and in spite of opposition, she applies herself as she otherwise might not, and consequently her acquirements generally represent more real work than do those of the male student.

For the American woman at least—and most of these pioneer women students are Americans—the advantages of such a course are quite as great as they are for the American man, and the initiated know what that means. For her, as for him, the fact of having studied in Germany enhances—often quite disproportionately—her intellectual value in the estimation of those who have not done so, while, by those who have, it is accepted for what their own experience has made its worth to them. If she means to teach, her chances, like the man's, for a good position are by so much the more increased.

It may be considered by the conservative unwarrantably bold in American women thus to push themselves abroad as they could not at home—for instance, at Johns Hopkins or Harvard—but it is not by passively waiting for them that such things come, especially to the individual; and it is undoubtedly due, in part at least, to these pioneer women that the agitation is so general now throughout Germany in favor of admitting women to the universities on the same terms as men. J. B. S.

THE SELECT COMMITTEE ON THE IRISH LAND LAWS.

DUBLIN, January 25, 1894.

IN view of the proposed inquiry by a committee of the House of Commons into the Irish land laws, a sketch of the past legislation on this subject may be of interest. The reason for exceptional legislation in Ireland rested chiefly on the essential difference between the landlord and tenant systems in England and in Ireland. In 1845 the Devon Royal Commission reported that the introduction of the English system would be extremely difficult, if not impracticable. The difference, it said, between the English and Irish systems

"consisted in this, that in Ireland the landlord builds neither dwelling-house nor farm offices, nor puts fences, gates, etc., into good order before he lets his land. In most cases, whatever is done in the way of building or fencing is done by the tenant; and, in the ordinary language of the country, houses, farm buildings, and even the making of fences are described by the general word 'improvements,' which is thus employed to denote the necessary adjuncts to a farm without which in England or Scotland no tenant would be found to rent it."

Thirty years later, John Bright summarized the matter by saying that if the land of Ireland were stripped of the improvements made upon it by the labor of the occupier, the face of the country would be "as bare and naked as an American prairie." This fundamental difference between the English and Irish land systems has never been fully appreciated in England, where the landlord's expenditure on buildings, fences, drainage, farm roads, etc., and on maintenance absorbs a large part of the rental.

Reform of the Irish system began in 1870. Before that time little had been done to protect the Irish tenant except to forbid evictions at night, on Christmas Day, on Good Friday, and the pulling off the roofs of houses until the inmates had been removed. The Land Act of 1870 recognized, in principle, the tenant's property in his improvements by giving him a right to claim compensation if disturbed or evicted. This was not what the tenants wanted, viz., security of tenure. The results of compensation suits by "disturbed" tenants were uncertain; compensation for improvements was limited in various ways, and the animus of the courts administering the act was distinctly hostile to the tenants. Many works necessary to the existence of tenants on small farms were not improvements in the eyes of the landlord, of the law, or of the judges; it was often impossible to adduce legal evidence of costly works done little by little, and at intervals, representing the savings of labor embodied in drainage, reclamation, or fencing. Buildings and other works of a superior character might be adjudged "unsuitable" to small farms, and therefore not the subject of any compensation; moreover, it was expressly laid down that the use and enjoyment by the tenant of works effected wholly at his expense were to be accounted compensation to him by the landlord, and that, therefore, by lapse of time, the tenant's improvements became the landlord's property.

The act of 1870 tended to make capricious and heartless evictions expensive and therefore less common; but it gave no security of tenure, and left the landlord still at liberty to raise the rent of improving tenants. It left the tenant still in a state of dependence and servility; it gave him no security for his expenditure. for the landlord's right to keep the rent continually rising was freely exercised. Even if the act had been liberally administered, it would have failed to give contentment, satisfy the demands of justice, or encourage the expenditure of capital by tenant farmers. Measure after measure proposed by Irish members for further reforms were rejected by Parliament between 1870 and 1880, and discontent continued to increase.

The Duke of Richmond's commission on agriculture extended its inquiries to Ireland in 1878, and its assistant commissioners reported that discontent was "justifiable" and agitation "natural" under existing circumstances. So desperate appeared to them the condition of affairs in 1880 that they said: "If nothing is done to grapple with this question, we should not be at all surprised to see an organized attempt next spring to destroy landlords. There may be on a particular night, when the potato crop shall have been consumed, an attempt to destroy a very large number of them." This was probably an exaggerated apprehension, but that no such attempt ever took place is indirect evidence of the restraining effect of the Land League organization.

The Land Law Act of 1881 was based on the Report in 1880 of the Bessborough Royal Commission, but many of the most useful suggestions made were disregarded. This act purported to give the Irish yearly tenants (1) the right to sell their tenancies and improvements; (2) the right to have a "fair" rent fixed by the land courts at intervals of fifteen years; (3) security of tenure arising from this right to have the rent fixed by the court instead of by the landlord. The law, in fact, conferred upon those tenants who came within its provisions a perpetually renewable tenure, at rents variable every fifteen years, to be fixed either by agreement or by the Land Court. No definition of what constituted a fair rent was embodied in the act, but what is known as the Healy clause provided that "no rent shall be allowed or made payable in respect of improvements made by a tenant or his predecessors." The language of common sense could scarcely be clearer or more explicit than the words of this clause, but when the Irish courts came to interpret it, they held that the term "improvements" meant only that interest in his improvements for which the tenant might have obtained compensation under the Land Act of 1870 if he had been disturbed or evicted, and that the time during which the tenant had had the use and enjoyment of his own expenditure was still to be accounted compensation made to him by his landlord, so that by mere lapse of time the tenant's improvements became the landlord's property. As, under the Land Act of 1870, there were many improvements for which, and many circumstances in which, a tenant could not obtain compensation, so correspondingly were there many instances in which, under the Land Law of 1881, the courts held that the tenant was expressly liable to pay rent in proportion to the increased letting value which he had conferred on his farm. In fact, the right, under the Land Law Act of 1881, of a tenant to exoneration from rent on the value

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of his own labor and expenditure was made to depend on the result of a hypothetical suit for compensation under the Land Act of 1870. The effect of these judicial decisions has been to maintain generally the rack-rent of farms with all their buildings and equipments made at the tenant's expense as equivalent to the fair rent under the Land Law.

In view of the continually falling prices of agricultural produce and diminishing farm profits, the operation of the land laws has not brought about peace between landlords and tenants. The latter naturally fail to comprehend the "case law" and the ingenuity which the courts have shown in interpreting the statutes so as to give them a completely different meaning from the grammatical meaning and from what was intended by the authors of the Land Law of 1881. In the course of the debates in 1881, Mr. Gladstone said that under that act "the tenant's improvements were the tenant's own property, and he would not admit the principle that the time during which he enjoyed them was any reason for their passing away from him"; again, that "it was nothing short of impossible that the court should imagine or adjudge that to be compensation by the landlord which never cost the landlord in any shape a single farthing." Nothing, however, was impossible to the Irish courts, and their construction of the Land Law has reduced many of its provisions to rank absurdities. In a well-known English leading case Lord Justice Selwyn said, "It is not the duty of a court of law to be astute to find out ways in which the object of an act of the Legislature may be defeated"; yet, whether from the natural conservativeness of lawyers or from political bias, this is what the Irish judges have done, wholly disregarding the public evils to remedy which the act of 1881 was passed.

In 1887 the Cowper Commission reported that the 200,000 rents which had been fixed were too high in consequence of the continued fall in prices. As a result of the report of this commission the fair-rent provisions of the law were extended to leaseholders holding for less than sixty years; but the courts still adhering to their former methods of interpretation, numbers of leaseholders who had made and maintained all the buildings, improvements, and equipments of their farms found themselves either excluded on narrow and technical points, or expressly rented on their own expenditure. In 1891 the fair-rent provisions were further extended to leaseholders holding for more than sixty years by the Redemption of Rent Act, under which long leasehold tenants could compel their landlords either to sell to them, or allow a fair rent to be fixed on their farms.

The successive steps in reform of the rent system thus were—

(1) In 1870, compensation for disturbance and for improvements made by yearly tenants; (2) in 1880, establishment of fair rent courts for yearly tenants; (3) in 1887, admission of short leaseholders to the fair-rent courts; (4) in 1891, admission of long leaseholders of certain classes to the fair-rent courts.

The three first reforms were preceded by waves of popular agitation; the representatives of the National party in each case protested and voted against the measures enacted, as insufficient remedies for the existing evils, and against the machinery by which they were administered; the House of Lords emasculated each measure before it became law; and judicial decisions drew the fang-teeth of the acts, insufficient as they were to affect the objects aimed at. The actual operation of the law, moreover, is very different from the theory, and is in direct contravention of the letter of the more recent statutes. Large numbers and classes of tenants are excluded from the benefits of the Land Law, on technical grounds, although the circumstances of their farms and tenure are in the main the same as those of tenants who are admitted. "Fair rents," fixed by the courts, include, wholly or partly, the value conferred on the land by the tenant's expenditure; and, owing to the continued and unanticipated diminution in farming profits, many fair rents are not earned and cannot be paid. Fair-rent suits are costly and their results uncertain, depending as they do on technical questions of "case law." Lastly, the farm tenure established is so uncertain and unsatisfactory that neither landlord nor tenant would be justified on grounds of prudence in investing money in permanent improvement of farms.

Concurrently with these attempts to place the relations of landlord and tenant on a peaceful and equitable basis, a system of State loans to enable tenants to buy their farms has been in operation. There were many persons who thought that providing facilities for litigation between the two parties would lead to no final settlement of the land question, and that the interests of landlords and tenants were irreconcilable. In 1869 the tenants of church lands were given the right of preëmption of their farms, subject to the condition of providing themselves one-quarter of the purchase money; seven or eight thousand tenants purchased under this act. In 1870, loans of two-thirds of the price were permitted to be made to other tenants buying voluntarily from their landlords. Out of £1,000,000 provided by Parliament, only £500,000 was thus applied during the ten years 1870-'80. The prices demanded were too high; legal obstacles, delays, and costs made the purchase provisions of the land act almost inoperative. In the Land Law of 1881 there was a further extension of the principle: tenants buying from their landlords could obtain three-fourths of the price from the Land Commission if the security was sufficient and the title satisfactory. In the succeeding five years only £250,000 was thus advanced; landlord sellers could generally impose what terms of purchase they liked upon their tenants, and very few tenant farmers were able to provide the necessary fourth part of the price in cash. In 1885, a Land Purchase Act was passed which enabled loans of the whole price to be made to purchasing tenants, and buyers were practically exempted from the former burdensome scale of costs. Many judicial rents having been fixed under the "fair rent" provisions of the Land Law of 1881, and the demand for landed estates by outside investors having altogether ceased, prices generally ruled lower, although landlords were still often able to extort excessive prices by pressing for arrears of rent. On the other hand, bankrupt landlords, pressed by their creditors, sometimes sold at a low figure. A new feature in the loan system introduced by the act of 1885 was the retention by the Land Commission of one-fifth of each loan, as a guarantee against loss by default in payment by the borrower. This "guarantee deposit" was invested, and the income arising from it paid to the landlord, unless default was made by the tenant purchaser. It is not repayable to the landlord until the tenant's annuity on his loan has been paid for eighteen years. Nearly £10,000,000 has been advanced under the act last referred to and subsequent extending measures. Under the different acts passed since 1869, about 25,000 tenants have become owners of their farms, subject to terminable annuities to the Government in repayment of the loans made to them. With some few exceptions, the loan annuities have been fairly paid, in spite of continually diminishing profits and low prices.

In 1891 another Land Purchase Act was passed, under which about £30,000,000 may be advanced to tenants purchasing from their landlords. Sellers are, however, no longer paid in cash, but in "Guaranteed Land Stock" bearing 2¾ per cent. interest. There are various complicated guarantees for payment of the interest on this stock, but it is ultimately guaranteed by the consolidated fund of the United Kingdom. The stock has usually been salable at about 98, and, being up to a certain amount exchangeable for consols, is only fractionally lower than the market price of that stock. Less than £1,000,000 of this land stock has as yet been advanced, and, owing to the many complicated provisions in the act, its operation is necessarily slow. A guarantee deposit is still retained out of each loan.

In 1886 the Liberal party proposed, as an adjunct to their home-rule bill, a measure which would have enabled every landlord in Ireland to sell his estate to the Irish state authority for resale to the tenants—the landlord might in fact compel his tenants to buy, but no corresponding power was given to the tenants. In 1891 the Liberals opposed the Conservative Government's Purchase Act on the grounds of the impolicy of making every individual tenant purchaser a debtor directly to the English Treasury, and of the injustice of imposing a guarantee tax on the county rates without the consent of the taxpayers.

It is now proposed to have an inquiry by a select committee of the House of Commons into (1) the principles adopted in fixing fair rents, particularly with respect to tenants' improvements; (2) the system of purchase and security offered for the loans of public money; (3) the organization and administrative work of the Land Commission—a department which has cost the country about £100,000 a year since 1881. The popular demand for inquiry and reform comes as much from the Protestant North as from the Catholic South. Although the landlords may not wholly approve of an inquiry initiated by a Liberal Government, they are nevertheless anxious to have many changes made in the existing law. In 1895 the first judicial term of fair rent will expire, and, unless some change is made in the law, every landlord may find himself a target for as many lawsuits as he has tenants. Apart from politics and agitation, economic causes have greatly reduced the revenue derivable from landed estates. If, in priority to the support of landlords, mortgagees, tenants, and laborers, a horde of lawyers, surveyors, valuers, and officials are to live on the revenue of Irish estates, the condition of Ireland, where the chief industry is farming, cannot be satisfactory. If rents are to be periodically revised, the problem for the select committee to solve is how this can be done without an expensive lawsuit in each case. Proposals are frequently made to vary rents at triennial or quinquennial periods in proportion to the variation of prices of produce, but the elementary fact that the earning of rent depends upon profits and not upon prices is overlooked. The payment of rents varied according to prices could be secure only if the initial rents to be varied were low ones, and this is not the case generally with the 350,000 rents which have been judicially fixed since 1881. The state of unrest and insecurity existing under a tenure by which rents are

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subject to periodical revision on uncertain principles is calculated to prevent farmers spending money on permanent improvement, and the mere expenditure of money on valuable and permanent works may under the present law have the effect of excluding a tenant from the act, or bring an increase of rent in consequence of the expenditure.

With regard to the vast amount of money to be advanced for purchase of farms, Parliament has laid down no principle as to the security except that the Land Commission is to be "satisfied with it." The tendency has been to interpret the purchase acts as liberally as the rent acts have been narrowly interpreted. It is very much easier for officials to say "yes" than "no" to applicants for public money. Decisions as to loans approved of cannot be questioned in the higher courts, and, until repayments have been in progress for many years, it will be difficult to judge whether there has been overlending of the funds. An agreement by a landlord to sell and by a tenant to buy would in ordinary circumstances be prima-facie evidence that the particular farm was worth the price named; but, apart from cases of collusion between seller and buyer, the price may include arrears of rent, and, so far as the price includes a past loss by the tenant, who has not earned or who has otherwise spent his rent, and a loss by the landlord who has not received his rent, there is no income-producing asset at the back of the loan. The Land Commission cannot fix the price; it may refuse to lend and the landlord may appeal against a refusal on the ground of insufficient security; but the tenant-purchaser is estopped from any appeal by his own agreement, which is presumed to have been entered into voluntarily. In the existing circumstances, the select committee might usefully suggest some restrictions on improper loans and some safeguards against overlending on doubtful securities.

The inquiry will be watched with great interest in Ireland, and the findings and suggestions of the committee awaited with anxiety. Royal commissions, of which there have been many on the Irish land laws, are often only a device to shelve a question which Government is afraid to handle, but the report of a committee of the House of Commons is not so easily disregarded, and is likely to be followed up by legislation.

AN IRISHMAN.

IN THE BALEARIC ISLANDS—VII.

VALLDEMOSA, January, 1894.

WITH people who are not in a hurry the fact that there is no railroad in Menorca is no cause for grievance. On the contrary, nothing could be pleasanter than to be allowed to share the driver's seat on the diligence, unless it be to amble along on a well-mannered donkey with a soft sheepskin for saddle. More than one good word should be said for the hard, smooth roads, kept in perfect repair, which help to make travelling in the Baleares a delight. For a country labelled "backward," Spain shows a remarkable forwardness in the thoroughness with which these highways are made comfortable for man and beast, and in this respect these little islands put to shame our own country, with its vastly greater resources. The noticeable absence of Roman roads after an occupation of more than five hundred years has been explained on the ground that the Balearic Romans possessed a good navy, with which they could readily transport troops from one part of the island to another. In 1715 the English Governor, Kane, completed a military road the whole length of Menorca, which has been a serviceable highway ever since, but a new and much superior road is in process of construction.

Out upon the old road our diligence clattered one bright day on its way to Ciudadela, at the western extremity of the island, passing by the ancient gate of Barberousse (which takes its name from the bold corsair who captured it, and is the only portion of Mahon's old walls now standing), along the alameda skirting the harbor, and up through the valley of the little stream whose brown waters trickle down to the bay—the rich but solitary garden spot about Mahon. Alayor, the first of the three towns on the route, lies a little to the south of the highway, on a slight elevation, and with its windmills, church towers, and white houses glistening in the sunshine, attracts attention while yet in the distance. The dashing arrival of the diligence, three horses abreast, urged into a mad gallop by the driver's wild, Arab halloo, is the daily excitement; and ten minutes' wandering about the streets, while the post-bags were being exchanged, failed to discover that the town afforded much else in the way of diversion.

Beyond Alayor the country grows more fair, and when, on mounting a wooded hill, the beautiful valley of Mercadal, with the little town nestling beside its rock-bedded streamlet, came unexpectedly into view, there was a spontaneous chorus of delight. Monte del Toro to the north, crowned with a ruined monastery, is the most conspicuous feature, being the highest elevation (a little over 1,000 feet) in Menorca, and set impartially in the middle of the island. From Mercadal to Ferrerias the landscape has the gentle beauty of the Scotch lowlands—undulating, the hills clothed with pine and evergreen-oak, interspersed with patches of tall heather, pink and purple. The predios scattered here and there lack the picturesque, mediæval character of the farm habitations of Mallorca, but they have an air of homely comfort which is very attractive. They are not unlike the large colonial houses still to be seen in some parts of New England, and the shrewd, intelligent countenances of the farmers bear no slight resemblance to those familiar on any New England country road. But while so scanty a soil must needs make the farmer's life here a strenuous one, the kindly climate favors a character more open and genial than that of his transatlantic cousin.

Nature has painted the region about Ferrerias with strong contrasting colors, which the local passion for whitewash intensifies. The town takes its name from the iron-impregnated soil, of a deep, rich red, in which the Aleppo pine, with its peculiarly vivid green, flourishes. On the other side of Ferrerias the country is dull, but before descending to the plain of Ciudadela, the mountains of Mallorca rose across the blue water glowing with the brightness of the setting sun.

Until the period of the English domination, Ciudadela was the capital of Menorca, and a portion of the town retains an air of old-time dignity and quaintness. Broad arcades line the principal street, which leads past the fine thirteenth-century cathedral out to the little park where stands an obelisk commemorating the defenders of the town against a Moorish invasion in 1558. Some of the narrow streets were melancholy with the cry of quails imprisoned in tiny cages at almost every door, a fashion also prevalent in Palma. Some years ago an unwonted burst of energy broke against the city walls, and led to their demolition, but, as so often happens in these first steps in civic reform, the wave had spent itself before virtue could be given the added grace of beauty, and the line of the old ramparts is marked by dreary, treeless avenues bordered with ugly, rectangular buildings. Occupying one of these new spaces is the Fonda Feliciano, happily named. It bears no outward sign, but it needs no bush. Our minds were made up on stepping into the hall, with its polished floor and staircase, with tall clock ticking leisurely on the landing, even before we caught a glimpse, at the end, of the spotless kitchen with its tiled range and rows of shining platters, presided over by the beautiful Feliciano maidens. From its cleanliness and general air of refinement, it merits the appellation bestowed upon it by our intelligent *cochero*, of "fonda única."

The quest for prehistoric remains has such fascination for amateur antiquarians that we found ourselves before sunrise setting off on a talayót expedition which led over no royal road. Ploughed fields, and innumerable high stone walls, sometimes topped with brambles, had to be crossed before our goal was reached. Yet there were compensations other than the discovery of ancient monuments. That renewal of spring which here takes the place of the aftermath of summer that we call Indian summer, brought the violet, crocus, and jack-in-the-pulpit to play havoc with our calendar, while the soft, clear air was laden with the fragrance of rosemary, and melodious with the song of birds. This sense of vernal joy and activity was enhanced on emerging from the dark chambers whose huge stones have kept their secret for unknown ages. One of the most impressive of these grim structures is the *naveta* of Els Tudons, which certainly resembles a boat, keel upward, the sides slightly curved, the bow distinctly marked, and with an indefinable air about it which produces a singular effect. A low, square-cut doorway in the stern admits into the interior, where archæologists have found proof that these *navetas* were used as ossuaries. The stones both of the exterior and interior are of immense size. But however far the mind may go woolgathering into the past, its bodily associate has an acute sense of the present, and recalled us to the fact that we were some fifteen kilometres from dinner. As we were scaling the last wall that separated us from the highway, a peasant driving a mule and cart loaded with sweet potatoes manifested a lively curiosity and some concern about the señora. His invitation to a seat on the potato sacks was thankfully accepted, and our slow and somewhat uncomfortable progress was beguiled by the insular naïveté of the carter and his amusing struggles to locate the United States.

For Americans, Ciudadela has an historical interest that touches our own times. The archives of the city show that the ancestors of Admiral Farragut were domiciled there at least as far back as 1558, for among the four thousand captives carried off by the Turks, who made a successful inroad upon the city in that year, are recorded the names of Antonio Farragut and his whole family. The Farraguts were afterwards ransomed and returned to Menorca. The reverend custodians of the ecclesiastical records obligingly took down their time-yellowed volumes and showed us the baptismal entry of George Farragut, father of our admiral, made on the 30th of September, 1755. When quite a young man, he, with many others, emigrated to America, "instigated," as a chronicler says, "by the English, who then ruled over Menorca, and who wished

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to people their vast American continent"; adding naïvely, "also compelled by necessity to abandon their dry and unproductive land." But though apparently lost in the great wilderness of the New World, the American Farraguts were not forgotten, and we were told of the enthusiastic public welcome given to the admiral on his visit to Ciudadela in 1868; how soldiers were stationed along the highway to do him honor; how the alcalde and other officials together with prominent citizens went out to meet him four miles from the city gates, and what a mighty shout went up from the people crowded on the ramparts when he finally came in sight. The whole city was given up to rejoicing. Señor Oléo, son of Rafael Oléo y Quadrada, a local historian, showed us a photograph and autograph letter carefully preserved among his father's collection of papers concerning the Farragut family, and related the anecdote that when his father and the admiral met, the embarrassment arising from their ignorance of each other's language was overcome through the medium of Latin.

Accepting an invitation to visit the predio of Torre den Gaumes, in the southern part of the island, we crossed a verdant *barranca* containing the first orange trees we had seen in Menorca. Beyond this ravine the country appeared more arid than before; the stone structures erected for the use of cattle, which imitate the talayóts, adding to the look of sterility. Lean cattle wandered about in search of pasturage, and in some places the soil that had been washed down into the gutters by the infrequent rains was being scraped up and replaced upon the fields. The farmhouse, an ancient structure, built for defence in perilous times, stands on a slight eminence facing the sea, and with three talayóts in line forms a striking picture. Its isolated position necessitates domestic independence, and a great out-of-door oven supplements the wide-mouthed kitchen fireplace, while skeins of flax hanging in the storeroom told of busy distaffs. The happy relations manifest between the cultivated family of the proprietor and that of the tenant recalled the best side of our Southern life in early days. This glimpse into family life in Menorca, where modern refinements and a simple patriarchal spirit seem to be united, was one of our pleasantest experiences.

The map of the northern part of the island looked so attractive with its headlong promontories, deep bays, and surrounding hills, that we determined to visit the fishing village of Fornells, the only one on that coast. As there is no diligence service, the problem of getting there was solved by Jaime *nou* (*i. e.*, the new James) and a strapping horse named by absurd contradiction Pequeño, between whom existed a rare good-fellowship. Jaime knew the country well, and good-naturedly permitted us to explore promising byways, where novel sights sometimes greeted us. In one field a man was ploughing with an ass and a bullock; in another, advantage was being taken of birds of passage weary with their long flight from the mainland to ensnare them in large nets. A donkey with a towering load of household furniture trudged sedately along, and women perilously seated in high chair-saddles nodded serene salutations. A driving storm set in before we reached our destination, which gave us just the opportunity we wanted of seeing "the breaking waves dash high" on that wild shore. A small village, scrupulously clean; dismantled fortifications on a height which sweeps the bay; the ruins of an historic castle on a rocky islet in the harbor—and you have the outlines of Fornells. The bay lacks but little of equalling that of Mahon in size, and, with its background of rocks and wooded hills, rivals the latter in picturesque beauty. Fornells is seldom visited by strangers, and our arrival was a welcome diversion to the weather-bound fishermen gathered at the little *fonda*. The wind, which sometimes drives the salt spray clear across the island, howled all night, but the morning broke as fair and mild as May, and we started on a pilgrimage to San Cristóbal, in whose vicinity are some curious ancient monuments. On the way we ascended Monte del Toro, over which legend has shed a sacred lustre. The chapel on its summit contains the black Virgin, miraculously discovered by aid of the bull from which the mountain is popularly supposed to take its name. A more prosaic explanation, however, is contained in the suggestion that the Moors called it El Tor, the height. The view from the top is charming, the altitude softening blemishes while not obscuring details; the whole island lying below spread out like a chart. Through the misinterpretation of a signal given from one of the talayóts near San Cristóbal we lost Jaime and Pequeño; but "it's an ill wind that blows nowhere," and we were blown by this seeming misfortune into a deep *barranca* of primeval loveliness guarded by frowning crags. It is these sudden transitions from the parched fields so painfully cultivated by man to Nature's affluence that give a rare flavor to by-way travel in Menorca. Restored to our conveyance, it was a matter of only a few hours across-country to Ciudadela, from whence an elegant little steamer runs to Soller in Mallorca. The palms and windmills, and *casas de recreo* along the sloping banks of the little port make the approach to Ciudadela from the sea far more picturesque than from the land; and as we made our slow way out the city took on a fresh interest as we remembered its survival of many vicissitudes, from fires, from invasions, by which it has earned the name of "The Immortal." Hardly are the shores of Menorca lost sight of when the mountainous coast-line of Mallorca appears, and so close does the steamer run in shore that we could clearly see every rugged detail of those grand forms, resplendent with hues of red and orange. As we neared Soller, orchards terraced the steep sides and hung over the dizzy precipices; and rounding a point we entered the narrow passage which leads to the lovely port embosomed in the mountains. S. G.

Correspondence.

THE ENNEACRUNUS AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The German Archæological Institute has just completed, under the direction of Dr. Wilhelm Dörpfeld, the first of a series of important excavations, which are to determine, if possible, the situation of the *agora* of ancient Athens. Last Thursday afternoon, in a drizzling rain, just northeast of the spot near the Pnyx where the Boulevard des Philhellènes, as marked on the map in the Guide-Joanne, makes a sharp turn to the north, the workmen uncovered the opening of a great conduit tunnelled in the native rock and running from this point east. Dr. Dörpfeld confidently believes this to be the artificial channel which was constructed by Pisistratus, in the sixth century B. C., to supply water to the fountain that in the time of Thucydides, as he himself relates, was called Enneacrunus, or the Nine Conduits, but originally, before the springs were covered in, Callirrhoë, or the Fair Stream. The moment of discovery was one of lively interest; and when, after the débris that obstructed the opening had been hastily shot aside, the genial first secretary of the Institute, who is in more ways than one a large man, disappeared from view in the opening, we grew excited. When he presently reappeared, after a journey of twenty-five metres under ground, in ruined clothes but with a smiling face, who will wonder that we "gave him our hands"?

The present excavations began in January, 1892, and continued until March. They were resumed in November, and continued until March, 1893; they were again resumed in January of the present year. Their object was to determine whether the much-discussed Enneacrunus did or did not lie somewhere between the west slope of the Acropolis and the Pnyx, where the account of Pausanias ought to place it. Their starting-point was the open conduit, constructed along the face of the rock at the foot of Pnyx hill, on the west side of that part of the Boulevard des Philhellènes which lies due west of the Acropolis. This conduit is now known to have been built in Roman times. The results of the excavations, briefly summed up, are the following:

An ancient street, with a grade of 1:20, has been laid bare for 220 metres. This begins on the west side of the modern Boulevard, due west of the Areopagus, crosses the Boulevard, and runs along its east side in a southerly direction. This street was supported by polygonal retaining walls and lay much below the present level. Under it is a great elliptical tile-drain, into which thirteen smaller drains enter, on that part of the street already uncovered. Between this street and the Boulevard, buildings have been found that belong to the fifth or sixth century B. C., as is determined by their construction and by inscriptions found in them. The first is a small sanctuary, surrounded by polygonal walls and containing two boundary stones, one *in situ*, which carry the word ὅρος in sixth-century letters. Opposite the little temple that stands at the northern end of the sanctuary is a round altar of poros-stone. The street gradually rose in height in ancient times, and in the fourth century a *leschè*, marked by two boundary inscriptions, was built over the sanctuary. This extended to the west, and lies in part under the present Boulevard. Just south of the little temple, on the same side of the street, several Greek dwelling-houses have been disclosed. Inscriptions show that two of these were mortgaged.

No remains of dwelling-houses have been found on the east side of the street. The walls discovered here are retaining and enclosure walls. Dr. Dörpfeld believes that the sacred precinct of Dionysus in the Marshes lay here, towards the north, and the Eleusinium towards the south. Between these a street branches from the main street and leads directly to the Acropolis. South of this, on the main street, lies an enclosure which, from remains of buildings and dedicatory reliefs (one with an inscription naming Asclepius) found within the precinct, Dr. Dörpfeld calls Asclepieum.

West of the Asclepieum on the other side of the main street, in the axis of the Propylæa of the Acropolis, lay Enneacrunus. This consisted of an open area, west of this the "fountain" with its nine mouths, and at the foot of Pnyx hill the natural springs mentioned by Thucydides. Since the fountain lies under the modern Boulevard, it has not been possible as yet to excavate it properly. It may have

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been wholly destroyed, since remains of it have been found built into a Roman house to the east. These remains are either poros or Karà limestone. One of the stones, a great slab which evidently stood upright, has two openings or "mouths" on its upper edge. To increase the supply of water from the natural springs, conduits were driven into the rock under Pnyx hill, and reservoirs were constructed in front. Seven of the former and six of the latter have been found.

This supply was not adequate, and Pisistratus built an underground aqueduct which brought water either from the upper valley of the Ilissus or from Hymettus down into the town. It passed under the present royal gardens at a depth of 13 metres, and under the south slope of the Acropolis at a depth of 20 metres. Its course carried it under the seats of the Theatre of Dionysus, where a shaft has been found that communicated with it. It ended near a great reservoir, 10 metres square, which lay south of the fountain and supplied it with water. That part of the aqueduct which was nearest the reservoir was built of great squared blocks of poros. When it reached the hill, as we follow its course back toward its source, an open passage was cut for it through the rock for some distance. The faces of these rock walls are in places three metres high. It then passed under the hill as a tunnel. It was the opening of this tunnel which was brought to light last Thursday. It was difficult to find, because a part of the lower conduit had been destroyed and its course was uncertain. The tunnel varies from 1.30 to 1.60 metres in height, and from .60 to .70 metres in width. Originally the natural rock formed its sides, but later it was faced (in places where the rock was soft) with tiles which are inscribed with letters of the fourth century. These tiles give the conduit the form of a beautiful semi-ellipse. In places they have broken and now close the conduit, but this will easily be opened, as shafts descending perpendicularly from above to the main water-course are known to have existed and will be found. From the main aqueduct two smaller conduits lead, one into the Asclepieum, the other into the big square reservoir. These are built of round tiles which were carefully jointed with lead and are almost identical with the tiles used in the construction of the aqueduct built by Polycrates in Samos in the sixth century B. C.

These excavations have laid bare a great complex of conduits, reservoirs, drains, and the remains of a fountain the age of which can hardly be in doubt. This may not be Enneacrunus, but the burden of proof would seem to be laid on the unbelievers. Athens is not likely to have had two such water supplies in the sixth century. There is one man at least in Athens who feels no doubt. Last Saturday afternoon, under the lee of the Areopagus, Dr. Dörpfeld discussed the literary evidence bearing on the question for three hours (no other man here dares to talk so long), and ended a convincing presentation of his views with the words: "Die Enneakrounos-Episode, meine Herren, existirt nicht mehr für mich—die Frage ist gelöst!"

JOHN WILLIAMS WHITE.

ATHENS, January 18, 1894.

THE AMERICAN FOLK-LORE SOCIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to call attention to the plans of the American Folk-Lore Society? The quantity of material presented for publication has forced the society to undertake a series of "Memoirs," in addition to its organ, the *Journal of American Folk-Lore*. The first volume of this series, 'Folk-Tales of Angola,' by Mr. Heli Chatelain, will appear in March. This will exhibit Angolan oral literature, in original text and literal translation, accompanied by explanatory notes; the connection of the thought and life of West Africa with that of American negroes brings the work within the scope of the operations of the Society. Several other volumes are nearly in readiness for the printer, and it is much to be desired that their publication should not be delayed. The outlay is to be met by an annual subscription of ten dollars (terminable at pleasure), giving the right to receive all publications of the Society. The work of the Society, however, may also be furthered by a sufficient increase in membership (the annual fee being three dollars). There are many States in which the Society has few members or none; in all these there must be a body of intelligent persons who would be glad to assist, if the matter could be brought to their attention. The addition of 500 members would enable the Society to carry out the plans indicated.—Very truly yours,

W. W. NEWELL, Secretary.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 5, 1894.

HENRIETTE D'ANGLETERRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a notice, in the last number of the *Nation*, of 'Madame, or Memoirs of Henrietta, Daughter of Charles I. and Duchess of Orleans,' by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady), it is stated that "Mrs. Ady has carefully estimated such evidence as is at hand concerning the sudden and still mysterious death of Henrietta, and comes to the conclusion that death was due to natural causes acting on an enfeebled frame and aggravated by the Princess's own imprudence."

In *La Philosophie Positive*, No. 2, September-October, 1867 (a review edited by E. Littré and G. Wyrouboff), is an interesting account of the illness and death, and of the autopsy, of Henrietta, under the title "Henriette d'Angleterre, belle-sœur de Louis XIV., est-elle morte empoisonée?" by the eminent Dr. Littré, in which it is conclusively shown that the Princess died of the not uncommon disease gastric ulcer, with perforation of the wall of the stomach—a disease undescribed at the time.

F. MINOT.

BOSTON, February 9, 1894.

"TOTE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am able to furnish an earlier instance of the use in America of the word "tote" than that to which your correspondent "F. E. M." calls attention in the *Nation* of February 1. After the suppression of the insurrection headed by Nathaniel Bacon in 1676, the different counties of Virginia were asked to give statements of their grounds of complaint against the administration of public affairs which had led up to the rebellion. In the "Grievances of Gloucester County," now preserved in the British State Paper Office, London, Colonial Entry Book, No. 81, pp. 325-327, February 1676-'77, there will be found the following clause which contains a charge against Robert Beverley:

"When this county had according to order raised 60 armed men to be an outguard for the Governour, who not finding the Governour, nor those appointed Comanders, they were by Beverly comanded to goe to work fall trees and mawle and *toat* rails, which many of them refusing to doe, he presently disarm'd them, and sent them home at a tyme when this Country were infested by the Indians, who had but a little before cutt off 6 persons in one family and attempted others. They beg reparation against the said Beverly and his Majesties gracious pardon for their late defections."

The expression to "toat rails" will have a very familiar sound to all of the present day who have been brought directly into association with plantation life in Virginia.

It is interesting to note that at the time the Gloucester report of grievances was made, the negro population of the colony was very small. In 1671, Sir William Berkeley, who was then Governor, and enjoyed full opportunities of informing himself as to the number of slaves in Virginia, declared that this population did not exceed two thousand. This would seem to render improbable the supposition which has been sometimes advanced that the word had its origin with the negro race in this country.

PHILIP A. BRUCE.

VIRGINIA HISTORICAL SOCIETY,
RICHMOND, VA., February 5, 1894.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am afraid the word "tote," instead of being a Southern word or a "word of African origin," like many a so-called Americanism, will have to hark back to England, for it is used in middle England, southern Yorkshire, and Lincolnshire in exactly the same way that it is used in eastern Virginia; the farm-servant there, like the negro here, "toting" a horse to water or an armful of wood into the house. The *toting* mentioned by your correspondent "F. E. M.," on p. 85, refers not to the *manner*, but to the purpose of the transportation.—Yours respectfully,

W. G. B.

LEXINGTON, VA., February 2, 1894.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will publish directly 'Life's Little Ironies,' a volume of short stories by Thomas Hardy; 'Studies of the Stage,' by Brander Matthews; and 'A Child's History of Spain,' by John Bonner.

Miss Adele M. Fielde's 'A Corner of Cathay'—namely, the region about Swatow—which is in course of preparation for publication by Macmillan & Co., will appear in September.

'Eight Illustrations to Shakespeare's Tempest,' by Walter Crane, are published in a limited edition of 650 copies by J. M. Dent & Co., London, and by Copeland & Day, Boston. Each proof, on thin paper, is mounted and provided with a mat for framing and a fly-leaf with title, and the whole is, with doubtful taste, enclosed in a box simulating a book. The engravings are by Duncan C. Dallas, in what is known as "Dallastype," and are certified to by Mr. Crane, the best possible judge, as "very faithful and successful." The designs themselves are by no means of Mr. Crane's best. The further he gets from simple outline and pure decoration, the more his shortcomings are apparent, and some of these drawings are wofully amateurish. He evidently seldom refers to nature, and his thoroughly conventional drawing becomes painful when anything like completion is attempted. The absurd attitude of Ferdinand with the log, and the silly hands of both figures in the chess-playing scene, are cases in point. Nevertheless, there is considerable pretty invention in background and accessories, and the "Dance of

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Nymphs and Harvesters" is graceful and charming, and recalls the delightful picture-books of its author. Two hundred copies are for sale in the United States.

"Après l'Agésilas, Hélas! Mais après l'Attila, Holà!" This epigram befits the 'Sylvie and Bruno' and, now, the 'Sylvie and Bruno Concluded' of Lewis Carroll, madder and maddest of the productions of the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' (Macmillan). The decline in humor is positively melancholy, and to read either of these volumes is nothing short of a penance. They are really sermons, or speculations about life and conduct and the hereafter, aimed at grown folks, and are most unfit reading for children. The nonsense verse in the concluding part is, with scarcely an exception, incapable of exciting a smile. Mr. Furniss, though his task as an illustrator was harder, has fallen far short of Tenniel in the immortal Alices.

Miss Edith V. B. Matthews has collected and translated, under the title 'Parisian Points of View' (Harpers), nine short sketches by Ludovic Halévy. They are typical of the author's style, though not always of his best work, they are nearly all interesting, they are well translated, and they are preceded by a capital introduction written by Mr. Brander Matthews, who has brought out just the right points in Halévy's literary character.

We have already given our readers an account of Arthur Lévy's 'Napoléon Intime,' a work sure of being translated sooner or later. The English version, by Stephen Louis Simeon, is now marketed in this country by the Scribners, in two volumes, entitled 'The Private Life of Napoleon.' The translation is of average merit only, in respect of idiom and freedom, but it will suffice, as the original work is not a masterpiece. More care might have been exercised in petty details. The accent in Joséphine might have been dispensed with, as in the case of Napoleon, and "Jerôme" is neither French nor English, as "Jéna" and "Wurtemberg" are neither English nor German, and "Strasburg" neither French nor German. But these inconsistencies are not very numerous, and would, with all other defects, be forgiven if there were but an index.

We have received from Dyrsen & Pfeiffer (F. W. Christern) the fourth edition of Paul Sabatier's 'Vie de S. François d'Assise,' which was the subject of our Paris correspondence last week. It is a solid octavo of some 420 pages, in the open character and choppy paragraphs characteristic of French books, and therefore capable of no little compression in an English version, which may be expected.

One can have only praise for the 'Handbook for Philadelphia Voters' compiled by Charles A. Brinley, who appears to be his own publisher (at 247 South Sixteenth Street, Philadelphia). While mainly of service to citizens of that metropolis, it may profitably be consulted by any student of our politics, for the organization of the local Republican and Democratic parties is set forth officially, and resembles, of course, that of the same parties elsewhere. In addition to this feature, we choose from the table of contents a few of the more important headings to give an idea of a work which ought to be widely imitated in other States: Digest of laws on citizenship and naturalization, and on the qualifications of electors; ward boundaries and areas; list of national, State, county, and municipal officers and representatives for whom an elector in Philadelphia may vote, with calendars for 1894–1896; list of important appointed officers in the State and municipality; calendar of party meetings and primary elections; constitution of the Municipal League; ballot and corrupt-practices acts; the city finances, etc., etc. Doubtless this handbook will be renewed annually or at short intervals.

We cannot speak too highly, either, of the little manual on 'The Money of the United States: Its Character and Legal Status from 1793 to 1893, etc.,' by Maurice L. Muhleman, Cashier U. S. Sub-Treasury, New York (New York: The *Safety Valve*, 55 Liberty Street). It makes no pretensions to scientific treatment of the money question, or to any treatment other than historical and statistical, but herein it is quite perfect. It presents first the legislative history of the coin and paper currency in use in the United States; second, statistical tables showing the volume of each kind annually existing since 1873; and lastly an abstract of the leading propositions looking to changes in the present monetary situation. The first and second of these presentations require technical knowledge only, but it is of a kind that few persons possess. Mr. Muhleman possesses the whole of it, and also the art of placing it before the reader without any superfluous words. Students will be glad to find embraced in his historical matter a brief account of the ante-bellum Treasury notes, issued in the war of 1812, the Mexican war, and the panics of 1837 and 1857, all of which notes bore interest and none of which were legal tender. A good index accompanies this excellent manual.

An interesting combination of meteorological research and fine book-making is seen in a little volume entitled 'Schneekrystalle,' by Prof. G. Hellmann of the Prussian Meteorological Institute (Berlin: Mückenberger, 1893). By the aid of his friend, Dr. Neuhauss, Hellmann has secured a number of microphotographs of snow crystals, here reproduced and constituting the first specimens of their kind. The text includes a history of earlier accounts of snowflakes, for the preparation of which Hellmann is peculiarly well trained; and a brief discussion of his own observations. It is found that snow crystals are larger and more of radiate form at temperatures near the freezing-point, and smaller and more disc-like at lower temperatures.

A 'Summary of International Meteorological Observations,' prepared by Major Dunwoody, has lately been published as Bulletin A of the Weather Bureau. The international plan proposed by Gen. Myer and approved by the Meteorological Congress at Vienna in 1873 was carried on from 1875 to 1887; more than 5,000,000 observations being reported from 459 land stations and nearly 600 vessels on the seas. All records were made simultaneously at Greenwich mean noon. The summary now presented contains a brief text and a series of fifty-nine large charts of the northern hemisphere on polar projection, giving illustration of various features of pressure, temperature, storm-frequency, and so on. It is noteworthy that the storm tracks seldom continue across the continent of Asia; they frequently cross the North Pacific, although rare there in the summer; they traverse North America in large numbers, especially about the Great Lakes; they pass over the North Atlantic, becoming confused and fading on entering Europe. The extreme brevity of the text makes it impossible to know surely whether allowance has been made in the charts of storm-frequency for the decrease of the size of the latitude and longitude squares towards the pole; and no statement is given as to the method of reduction of the barometric observations to sea level. Whether the temperature observations are reduced to sea level or not does not appear. The use of the term "normal temperature" seems unfortunate, inasmuch as the isothermal charts are peculiarly abnormal in combining the conditions of daytime on one side of the earth with those of night-time on the other. While this is of small moment in winter, it is of importance in summer. The charts exhibiting the change in the distribution of pressure from month to month are novel and interesting; no immediate explanation appears for some of the facts they present.

Popular Astronomy for February, published at Northfield, Minn., contains the first of a series of monthly maps of the constellations visible in the northern heavens. These are reduced from the planisphere of Messrs. Poole Brothers of Chicago. The paths of the planets for the month are marked in red.

The *Portfolio* undergoes a change of form and substance, and the January number comes to us from Macmillan & Co. as No. 1 of "The *Portfolio:* Monographs on Artistic Subjects. Edited by P. G. Hamerton." This first number is given up to "The Etchings of Rembrandt," and is written in his usual eminently reasonable style by the editor himself. He would probably not claim that it contains anything new, but it puts in a readable and attractive shape the ordinarily accepted facts of biography and criticism and a statement of the points of controversy. Tenderness for British morality has, however, prevented any reference in the biographical part to the existence of Hendrickje Stoffels, or in the critical part to the contested "free" plates. On the general question of the contested plates Mr. Hamerton seems inclined to adopt the extreme view of Mr. Seymour Haden, based on the theory that everything which, for any reason, he does not like is spurious; but he presents fairly the other side of the dispute.

The valuable bibliographical and critical Bulletin which the Italian Dante Society has published since March, 1890, under the able editorship of Prof. Michele Barbi, is now to be discontinued in favor of two other serial publications, under the direction of the same society. These are a *Rassegna Critica degli Studi Danteschi*, edited by Prof. Barbi, which will follow somewhat the lines of the old Bulletin, and a series of *Studi Danteschi*, which will contain longer articles in regard to the Society's critical edition of Dante's works and similar matters. The former will be published every month; the latter at irregular intervals.

It is announced that the sale of duplicates belonging to the Victor Emanuel Library at Rome will be begun with a lot not exceeding 10,000 volumes through some well-known bookseller or agent of the Peninsula. The selection of this intermediary will be made upon examination of the claims of such as offer themselves.

A proper memorial of the late secretary of Harvard University, Frank Bolles, has been found in a fund for the aid of needy students, which it is proposed to raise and place in the hands of the president for distribution. A tenth of the income will be set aside to increase the principal. Subscriptions (and none will be considered too small) may be addressed to Howard A. Cutler, 8 Holworthy Hall, Cambridge.

The late George W. Childs is commemorated in a photographic panel portrait by Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, with this artist's well-known skill. The likeness is an excellent index of character.

The trustees of the Columbia University Press, after careful consideration, have made

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an arrangement with Macmillan & Co. of New York and London to act as the publishers of the Press for a term of years. By this arrangement the works bearing the imprint of the Press will profit by the ample facilities of distribution possessed by Messrs. Macmillan, not only in the United States and Great Britain, but also on the continent of Europe and in the British colonies. Of late years, too, this firm has paid great attention to American authors, and they have recently published or have now in preparation works by a number of Columbia instructors, including Prof. Boyesen, Prof. Cattell, Dr. Egbert, Prof. Brander Matthews, Prof. Perry, and others. The arrangement made by the Columbia University Press is on conditions highly satisfactory to the trustees of the Press.

—Apropos of the Crown's veto in England, a correspondent writes:

"In Sir William Anson's valuable 'Law and Custom of the Constitution,' Part i., pp. 254-255, may be found exact and accurate statements as to the mode of giving and refusing the royal assent to legislative bills. He mentions 'the frequent use of the veto by William III.,' and offers some explanation of it. It is added that 'Anne exercised the veto once, when in 1707 she refused her assent to the Scotch Militia Bill. Since then the words *le roy s'avisera* have never been used.' These were the words, as Anson remarks, by which the King, unwilling to legislate, but wishing not to offend by a curt refusal, 'smiling put the question by.'"

And still another:

"Your statement that, in England, 'the veto of the crown has been obsolete for more than two centuries,' is, besides the authorities mentioned by you, sustained, also, by the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' Article *Veto:* 'This prerogative has not been exercised since 1692, and may now be considered obsolete.' But Mr. James Bryce, 'The American Commonwealth,' vol. i., p. 56, says: 'The last instance of the use of the "veto power" in England was by Queen Anne in 1707 on a Scotch militia bill.' Mr. Tod ('Parliamentary Government in the English Colonies,' ii., p. 319) mentions that in 1858 changes in a private railway bill were compelled by an intimation to its promoters that, if they were not made, the royal power of rejection would be exercised."

—In our recent notice of Dr. Coues's laborious edition of Lewis and Clark, referring to seven journals kept by the men of the expedition, and the possibility that research might even yet recover some of these, we said: "The unexpected happens. Such a happening would be the discovery of the journal by [Robert] Frazer." This language was prophetic beyond our dreams, for such a discovery has just been made in the archives of the Wisconsin State Historical Society. The treasure-trove consists in the journal written down by Sergeant Floyd, day by day from the date of starting up the Missouri till within two days of his death. The pages in this memorial are fifty-three, each of about fifteen long lines (7½ inches), with few lines erased or obscured. It was evidently soldered by Capt. Lewis in one of the tin boxes provided "to prevent injury from wet," etc. Concerning the contents of this unexpected find we may speak at another time. They are, of course, analogous to the chronicle of Gass, but are more like what the story of Gass would have been if printed from his own handwriting and not adulterated by the Scotch schoolmaster, David M'Keehan. The genuineness of the journal is beyond controversy. The pasteboard cover bears on the inside the words, "Charles Floyd, Bought at River Debois, 13th March, 1804," written in the same hand with the narrative which fills the pages. Several pages at the beginning, perhaps filled with accounts, have been mostly torn out, and the diary commenced Monday, May 14, 1804. Sergeant Floyd died August 20, just below where Sioux City now stands. His written book was no doubt sent down the river on April 4, 1805, when a barge left for St. Louis laden with every superfluous ounce which might encumber the expeditionaries. It is probably the very volume described by Lewis as follows, in his letter to Jefferson from Fort Mandan: "I have sent a journal kept by one of the sergeants, to Capt. Stoddard, my agent at St. Louis, in order as much as possible to multiply the chances of saving something." But in the same barge there went a letter and some parcels for Capt. Clark's kindred in Louisville, and it is likely that Floyd's manuscript also was soon forwarded thither. One reason for this opinion is that Floyd was probably enlisted from that quarter, and certainly more closely connected with Clark than with Lewis.

—A generation ago Lyman C. Draper, thirty years and more secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society, was intimate with the Clark family in Kentucky, and had such a craze for their papers that he was ready to "beg, borrow, buy, and (if need be) steal them." On the other hand, the Clarks readily humored him, knowing that whatever they gave him was placed where it was safest and most appreciated. Thus Draper came North laden with spoils—the largest collection, it is believed, in existence of manuscripts relating to the Clark family. It seems surprising that he never told anybody of his material which could correct, complete, or explain the story of the first transcontinental adventurers. The explanation is easy. The secretary was a colossal collector. His first earnings were spent on a fire-proof building where he stored his accumulations. Everything rich and rare, historically speaking, he did his utmost to shut in behind his iron door. But when it was once garnered there, and his will made bequeathing it to the Historical Society, he turned his back on it, and had no eyes save for new conquests.

—'Biltmore Forest: An Account of its Treatment and the Results of the First Year's Work,' is the title of an illustrated pamphlet by Mr. Gifford Pinchot, the consulting forester employed by Mr. George W. Vanderbilt to evolve a working plan for the development of his North Carolina estate, which lies for some six miles on both sides of the French Broad River, with a total area of 7,282 acres. The attempt which this report describes is the first practical application of forest management in the United States, "the prime object of which is to pay the owner while improving the forest." Neither the natural nor the economic situation of Biltmore is specially favored. Its output, of no high grade, competes directly with the low-class products of a large contiguous area of timber land; this output is sold at market prices in open competition, and it furnishes cord-wood to the brick works, ties to the railroads, posts to the United States Agricultural Department, and lumber for different uses, "simply because it does so at prices which make it worth while for these departments to purchase of the forest rather than elsewhere." Graphic woodcuts illustrate the condition of the forest before and after "improvement cuttings" were begun, and the treasurer's statement for the year from May 1, 1892, to April 30, 1893, will repay study by forestry commissions and all good citizens interested in the cessation of forest vandalism. The salary of the consulting forester (for satisfactory reasons) is not included in the expense account; we are also reminded that the credit side receives little benefit from work done before June 3, 1892, and that intelligent supervision and competent workmen—mainly negroes—had to be evolved by the work itself. The current expenses (of which the wage account, including salary of assistant forester, was $7,262.46) were $9,911.76, the receipts $5,607.11, with stock on hand in the shape of cut lumber, cord-wood, shingles, and telephone poles, valued at $3,912.25, leaving a balance of $392.40—a "not unsatisfactory result." The "improvement cuttings," besides paying expenses, seem to have established two facts of very great importance to the future success of American forestry, namely, "that large trees surrounded by a dense growth of smaller ones may be felled and removed with comparatively very unimportant injury to the young trees," and that the additional cost of the care necessary to preserve the trees is so small beyond that of ordinary destructive lumbering, "as to be out of all proportion to the result. . . . Its value in practice is enormous." Under the direction of Mr. Fred. Law Olmsted an arboretum has been started, with more trees and shrubs in its nursery than are to be found at Kew Gardens. Of the silvicultural character of many American trees we are densely ignorant, and the several branches of work at Biltmore are expected to help solve the problems with which American forestry is beginning to cope with awakened intelligence but limited knowledge.

—To the pretty "Muses' Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen) Mr. W. B. Yeats has contributed 'The Poems of William Blake.' The volume contains, in moderate compass, all that anybody but the mystic or the professional student will care to read of Blake's poetry. His purely literary work is given almost in its entirety, and the extracts from the 'Prophetic Books' are judiciously made. Mr. Yeats is well known as one of the editors of the great Quaritch collection of Blake's works, and as an enthusiastic disciple and interpreter of Blake's strange mystical system. It is a pity, therefore, that he has not given more space in his notes to the elucidation of some of the dark places in the present selection. For this the reader could well have spared some pages of solely bibliographical or text-critical interest. The Introduction is in one way admirable: it gives a succinct and well-proportioned account of the life and character of Blake, emphasizing, but not unduly, the visions or illusions, whichever one chooses to call them, that were to him more important than human companionships. As criticism, however, or literary history, the Introduction takes no high rank. We miss an estimate of Blake's place in English literature—of the influences, other than spiritual, which affected him, and of the influence which he has in turn exerted, not so much on his contemporaries as on the generations that have succeeded him. In framing a text the editor has been wisely conservative, and his temper towards his predecessors is charmingly urbane.

—The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte*, being the one periodical devoted almost exclusively to Italian art, deserves for this, and for other reasons, far more attention than it receives. It is refreshing to turn to its pages after the trite information and vague criticism usually served up in art periodicals. The *Archivio* appears in Rome six times a year, is of quarto size, well illustrated, and always contains, besides the articles and reviews, a number of hitherto unpublished documents. During the last year, for instance, a number of items appeared concerning one of the most imaginative of Italian

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painters, Dosso Dossi; and the editor, Count Guoli, contributed a stipulation made on October 27, 1481, by Cosimo Rosselli, Sandro Botticelli, Ghirlandajo, and Perugino, that they and their assistants would have their frescoes in the Sistine finished by March 15, 1482. This bit of information furnishes the precise date of the Sistine Quattrocento paintings, and at the same time excludes Signorelli, of whom it makes no mention, from any share in them, as indeed the latest criticism has already excluded him on stylistic grounds. Among the more important articles in the *Archivio* of last year are one by Signor Umberto Rossi, the curator of the Bargello at Florence, on the recent acquisitions made by that institution; a capital monograph by Count Guoli on Luigi Capponi, a Milanese sculptor of the fifteenth century, working in Rome; and a series of studies by Dr. Gustavo Frizzoni, on the Museo del Prado at Madrid. Although this incomparable collection of pictures has been visited by a number of specialists, including Morelli, Dr. Frizzoni is the first to furnish a complete account, from the point of view of the most advanced criticism, of its Italian masters. As literary heir and executor of Morelli, he has used the latter's notes to aid him in the searching analysis made of the works exposed, and the results at which he has arrived are likely to find universal acceptance. In Madrid, everything depends on distinguishing between what, for want of a better term, must be called autographic pictures by a given master, and such as are merely of his school, or are attributed to him by pure accident. Signor Frizzoni reduces the number of genuine Titians from forty-two to twenty-four, the Veroneses to two, the Raphaels also to two. No greater service can be done to the reputation of an artist than to relieve it of the second and third-rate works attributed to him, and the same process puts the public out of danger of squandering its emotions on bad art.

EARLY MAGNETICAL SCIENCE.—I.

William Gilbert of Colchester, physician of London, on the Load-stone and Magnetic Bodies and on the Great Magnet, the Earth: A New Physiology, demonstrated with many Arguments and Experiments. A translation by P. Fleury Mottelay. John Wiley & Sons. 1893.

THE lodestone, which Mr. Mottelay will write load-stone, is a mass of oxide of iron of the approximate composition $Fe_3 O_4$, which is susceptible to magnetic induction, but only very slowly, and which has lain for such eons in the telluric field of magnetism as to have become polarized, often most intensely. Almost all iron ore of this low degree of oxidation, which alone is magnetic, shows more or less polarity. The properties of a lodestone are sensibly different from those of a steel magnet, owing to its great resistance to magnetic induction—a circumstance which simplifies some of the phenomena.

If the scientific stage of experimental inquiry be considered as commencing with the application to it of special apparatus, then the earliest scientific magnetician was Petrus Peregrinus, a Picard, and elder contemporary of Roger Bacon. His treatise on the lodestone was printed in 1558, but that volume is excessively rare, and the contents of the work are not generally known even to specialists. We shall refer here to the text of a MS. of the thirteenth century in the Bibliothèque Nationale (MSS. latins 7378), certainly older than a date often assigned to the composition. The ancients had noticed that lodestones would pick up iron and draw it from a distance, and that one piece of iron hanging from a lodestone would pick up another. But they did not remark the poles, nor that iron could be magnetized. But before Peregrinus wrote, the use of the magnetic needle had begun to come into use with sailors. His treatise (*Epistola*) is addressed to a friend. It begins: "Amicorum intime! Quondam magnetis lapidis occultam naturam a te interpellatus," etc.—in English as follows:

"Inmost of friends! Having been formerly interrogated by thee, I will in a rude narration disclose everywhere the occult nature of the lodestone. For among philosophers nothing is pleasant without participation of knowledge, and the nature of good things is bereaved and clouded in darkness until it is lifted up into the light of mutual surrender. For the love of thee I will write things that to the mob of students are utterly unknown. Nevertheless, of nothing but what is open to observation (*manifestus*)* shall we in this letter deliver knowledge, in that this delivery will be part of the treatise in which we shall treat of constructing physical instruments. To treat of the occult properties of this stone concerns the art of sculpturing stone, and though I call the works of which I have inquired open to observation, still they will be inestimable, and to the vulgar they are as illusions and fancies, and therefore in respect to the vulgar they are secret: but to astrologers and naturalists† they will be sufficiently open to observation; and to them they will be a solace and for sailing travellers no slight assistance."

Truly, the scientific spirit and insight of this and other passages of the epistle are surprising. Apart from the affectionate warmth which has in all ages been characteristic of scientific men, but is almost incomprehensible to outsiders—well-nigh incomprehensible, for instance, that Agassiz, greatly injured as a scientific leader, and, indeed, worn nearly to death by his long and vehement dispute with Darwin, should, though a strong hater when occasion was, welcome with the utmost delight, "for their father's sake," the young Darwins, whose father had, as a matter of course, recommended them to Agassiz—apart from this, there are other little traits, veritable shibboleths among the race of *Naturforscher*. We remark that the above passage contains a sort of definition of what was meant by an "occult quality" among the mediæval physicists. It means a quality not deducible from the Aristotelian doctrine of hot and cold, moist and dry, and not discoverable except by experiment, and therefore a secret to all who do not make experiments, though "satis manifesta" to those who do. We also remark that the present treatise is regarded as an instalment of a larger one which is to treat of what? —of the "construction of physical instruments"; and directly after follows a passage (imitated, in form, from Geber, but far superior to the original in matter), to the effect that a physicist ought to be a mechanician, because it is not by mere thinking but by handiwork that he is to discover the natures of things ("Scito verissime quod oportet hujus artificem scire," etc., with which compare Geber's "Scias, carissime," etc., and "Oporteat artificem huius operis in scientiis philosophiæ naturalis eruditum esse," etc. There were many mediæval imitations of the same chapter of Geber, but none to compare with this).

Accordingly, the first thing that Pilgrim Peter does is to put a lodestone into a lathe, or in some way (to be explained in another work) reduces it to a spherical form. A happy thought that. Then he lays a bit of iron wire (*acus*) upon the ball, and finds it at once turns round in a definite direction. He marks this upon the stone, and pushes the needle along in the same line. This is done at several different places on the stone, and the different lines so drawn are found, on being continued, to intersect at two points only. At those points alone the wire stands up at right angles to the surface of the sphere. They are called by Peter its *poles;* they have retained that name ever since. He next floats the lodestone with its axis horizontal in a little round boat, and finds that a certain one of the poles always turns to the north. "Si millesies amoveatur, millesies ad suum locum revertetur nutu Dei." The pole pointing north he calls the north pole, and *vice versa*. Next, taking a second lodestone, he finds that unlike poles attract, while like poles repel, one another. Next, he shows that an oblong piece of iron touched at its end by a pole of the lodestone acquires the properties of a lodestone. He also shows the effect of breaking the stone across its axis, and that of uniting two stones in the way which satisfies their attractions. He thus recognizes magnetization by contact, but not induction at a distance.

So far, he has done his thinking, apparatus in hand; he has hardly so much as made suggestions; certainly, the conclusions were those of nature's own mind. But now he tries a little thinking with his individual brain. He concludes that the poles of the magnet direct themselves to the poles of the heavens. If he had only tried letting his lodestone sphere sink through water or some more viscous fluid, he would have discovered the magnetic dip, and would have refuted his error. But his mediæval mind was beginning to chafe under the harness of experiment. The poles of the lodestone point, he declares, to the poles of the heavens; and "no doubt every part of the lodestone points to an appropriate part of the heavens." So he suggests that his correspondent should try the following experiment: Let a spherical lodestone be so mounted between bearings as to turn freely on its axis, and be in equilibrium in every position, while the axis is held parallel to the axis of the heavens. "Then," he says, "if the stone turns with the revolution of the heavens, you may rejoice to have discovered a wonderful secret. But if not, it is to be imputed rather to your want of skill in mounting the stone than to any defect of nature." Is not this human?

After Peregrinus, three centuries and a half elapsed without the invention of any new apparatus, and consequently without any important discovery. That of the variation of the compass (the consequence of that invention) seems to have been made by navigators without reclamation. Its different amounts in different places are shown on the maps of the Venetian Andrea Biancho, made in 1436. The dip was first clearly proved by Robert Norman in his book, 'The newe Attractive, containyng a short discourse of the Magnes or Lodestone, and amongst his other vertues, of a newe discovered secret and subtill propertie, concernyng the Declinyng of the Needle touched therewith, under the plaine of the Horizon. Now first found out by R. Norman Hydrographer' (2 parts, London, 1581, 4to; other editions 1585, 1596, 1611). Norman was led to this discovery from having constructed a very accurately balanced needle.

William Gilbert came of an ancient family,

* The use of the word *manifestus* in this sense, which is almost peculiar to modern physicists, and that without explanation, seems to indicate the existence of a sufficiently large class of physicists early in the thirteenth century to have developed a diction of their own.

† Another word betraying the existence of a large class of natural philosophers.

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seated at Clare, in Suffolk, on the border of Essex. His father was a prominent and apparently wealthy lawyer in Colchester. The boy attended the grammar school, and in 1558 obtained the scholarship in St. John's, Cambridge, belonging to that school. He arrived in Cambridge just at the beginning of one of the religious revolutions there. St. John's, then altogether the most distinguished college in England, had for its master, when Gilbert first went there, an excellent scholar, George Bullock, who, on account of his Romanism, was within a year displaced by a still more learned man, and a wise one, James Pilkington, an ardent Calvinist, later Bishop of Durham. The Cambridge undergraduates were at that time coarse enthusiasts for Calvinism; but the dons mostly looked upon the church as a union to uphold holy living and put down evil, and thought theology was a secondary matter. They changed about from Protestantism to Catholicism and from Catholicism to Protestantism, without enthusiasm and without reluctance, at the royal bidding. It is rather a remarkable fact that Gilbert's great work contains not a single direct reference to God. In Book VI., cap. iii., he refers to the waters above the firmament "of the divine Moses," merely to explode the idea. Being a strong Copernican, he does remark that the Holy Scriptures recognize no *primum mobile* nor rotation of the entire firmament. But this is the only reply he condescends to make to the theological objections to the Copernican opinion, except that in one place he exclaims, "Excutiant theologi et spongiis deleant aniles istas" (Let theologians shake off and wipe out such old woman's nonsense). He speaks of "the divine and perspicacious genius" of Aquinas; but to translate "Divus Thomas," where *Divus* is simply the title of his grade of official sainthood, by "the godlike Thomas," as Mr. Mottelay does, is hardly warranted. However, these expressions pretty clearly show that Gilbert was a convinced Anglican, or, as we may say, Elizabethan, in religion.

Gilbert showed an early bent for chemistry. The latest novelty in that line was then Giambattista Porta's 'Natural Magic,' first published in Naples in 1558; and though this work was written when the author was only fifteen years old, it had an immense popularity, and was soon translated into Italian, French, Spanish, and Arabic. It was republished, greatly enlarged, in 1589. (We shall refer to the corrected edition of 1591.) But a passion for chemistry would imply readings in Ripley and in Paracelsus. Accordingly, we find in the 'De Magnete' several passages of Paracelsist leaning. During Gilbert's first year in Cambridge, he had, in accordance with the statutes then in force, to devote himself chiefly to the study of arithmetic, although the commission of 1559 changed this to rhetoric. Gilbert's writings amply attest his unusual accomplishments in both directions, but more particularly in mathematics. It is true that, in the last chapter of the 'De Magnete,' Mr. Mottelay (p. 354) makes Gilbert sneer at mathematicians; but the use of *hi*, "the latter," shows that not the mathematicians, but the philosophers, are meant. During his second year at the university, he was required to devote his studies to logic. Sir T. Wilson's 'Rule of Reason' was the only book on the subject that had been printed in England, but Gilbert certainly went deeper than that; his writings show it unmistakably. He was graduated in 1560, and obtained a fellowship. If, as Anthony à Wood asserts, he studied also in Oxford, it was most probably about this time. In 1565 he was mathematical examiner in St. John's, in 1569 he took his degree in medicine, and was appointed Senior Fellow.

On leaving college he went to travel on the Continent. He returned in 1573, and established himself in London. His house was on St. Peter's Hill, between Upper Thames Street and Little Knightrider Street. Mr. Mottelay locates this in Colchester; but the street (in the parish of St. Peter Paul's Wharf), called St. Peter's Hill, a continuation of Sermon Lane, appears on the old maps of London, and exists to this day. Upon being appointed principal physician to Queen Elizabeth, Gilbert seems to have moved to Whitehall. This broke up a society, the precursor of Gresham College and the Royal Society, which had for a long time met at his house. During his years in London he filled several offices in the Royal College of Physicians, those of censor, treasurer, consilarius, and finally, in 1600, the year of the publication of his great work, that of president. He died November 30, 1603, which was a plague year.

Gilbert is described as tall in stature. If we may trust to his portrait, he was robust and of energetic bearing. His head was square, his forehead square and smooth, his chin long, his physiognomy that of a practical man. At the same time, his appearance is refined and somewhat delicate. He was probably handsome. He never married. He was of a calm and cheerful disposition, "reserved but not morose," says Thomas Fuller. His book abounds in irascible expressions concerning certain classes of writers: "May the gods damn all such sham, pilfered, distorted works, which do but muddle the minds of students" (Book II., chap. xxxv.). He occasionally speaks rather haughtily of individuals. Thus, Jean Baptiste Besard (whose name Mr. Mottelay twice writes Bessard), certainly a very distinguished physician, is referred to as "one Besardus, a Frenchman." Although in 1600 Francis Bacon had not published anything about science, he had, no doubt, talked about it with Gilbert, and he is not improbably alluded to among the *rabulis*, or "pettifoggers," to whom the magnetic philosophy will not prove acceptable. Bacon, when his turn came, spoke contemptuously of Gilbert; but he gave dignity to what he said by making it quite true: "Gilbert has not unscientifically introduced the question of magnetic force. But he has himself become a magnet. That is, he has ascribed too many things to that force, and built a ship out of a shell."

ANOTHER LIFE OF GEN. THOMAS.

General Thomas. By Henry Coppée, LL.D., Professor in the Lehigh University, and formerly an officer of artillery in the United States Army. D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. xiv, 332. [Great Commanders Series.]

THE tone of Prof. Coppée's Life of Gen. Thomas is in refreshing contrast to some other publications on the same subject. He has found it easy to eulogize his hero without vilifying others. There is, perhaps, only a single instance in which his reference to others is questionable, and that is where he speaks of Thomas as "beset" by the authorities at Washington in December, 1864 (p. 258). He apparently forgets that Lincoln and Stanton did not send despatches to Thomas, but expressed their fears and their criticisms to Gen. Grant, who was always measured, if he was emphatic, in his orders and despatches. The author's characterizations of Gen. Thomas are happy, both in the development of the man in the earlier chapters, and in the summary near the end of the book. The military preëminence which is attributed to him over all his contemporaries will not be accepted as the final verdict, but is so much in the vein of special biographies that we must expect each of the subjects of the Commanders Series to be in turn set on the same pinnacle. We shall have to judge for ourselves, after all, among these clashing preeminences.

In one respect, however, we had the right to expect from the author another sort of workmanship than that which he has given us. It certainly would not be asking too much to demand that a résumé of campaigns should be accurate and intelligible. The errors in the present one are so numerous and so serious that it is not going too far to say that the more familiar the reader may be with the military operations of 1864, the more he will be puzzled in reading these pages. To justify this judgment it is necessary to give examples.

The period named covers Sherman's campaign of Atlanta and Thomas's campaign of Nashville. The battle of Resaca occurred on the 14th of May. After a sketch of it the author proceeds to "the next great step in the campaign, which was the turning of Allatoona Pass. The same tactics were employed as before." Instead, however, of the manœuvres to turn Allatoona, we find another sketch of the movements at Resaca, and one which is contradictory of that before given. In the former, Thomas and Schofield "formed the left of Sherman's army" (p. 205); now they form the right (p. 208). Yet Johnston is described as making "a desperate effort to turn the left of Schofield"; but as Schofield is just described as being "in line on Thomas's right," Johnston's effort could not be "to turn" Schofield, but to pierce the line between Thomas and Schofield. The two sketches cannot be made to hang together, and neither is the second consistent with the first, nor would any change of names make it apply to Allatoona.

The combat of New Hope Church is said to have been (p. 209) "one of the most terrible battles of the war," but the description which follows is that of the affair at Pickett's Mill, which occurred at another time and place. Hooker's corps had the prominent part at the church, Howard's at the mill. Hooker's men are not mentioned, and the sketch is wholly made up of incidents of Howard's engagement. The movements of Sherman's army between May 25 and June 14 are summarized without specifying dates, the 9th of June being the one last named, when (p. 210) we are told that "at three P. M. Hood made an attack in triple line." This can refer only to the combat at Culp's Farm, which occurred not on the 9th but on the 22d. Immediately following the last is the incident of the death of Gen. (Bishop) Polk on Pine Mountain on the 14th of June, eight days before the engagement at Culp's, which in the sequence of the narrative is just before it.

Johnston was removed from the command of the Confederate army on July 17, and Hood succeeded him on the 18th. We are told that on assuming command "Hood made two successive attacks"; but the first, at Peach Tree Creek, is said to have been on the 18th (p. 214). It was, in fact, on the 20th, and the incidents given are those of the 20th. On pages 216 to 219, under a regular title of the Battle of Peach Tree Creek, we have a fuller account of what purports to be the second of these attacks, but it is the identical one which was partially described as of the 18th, though the correct date is now given. The same engage-

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ment of parts of the Fourth and Twentieth Corps is specified, and the same personal direction of the artillery by Gen. Thomas. The second of Hood's attacks was, in fact, on the 22d, and was the battle of Atlanta, McPherson's Army of the Tennessee being assailed and that distinguished officer losing his life. This is not mentioned at all by the author in this connection. He passes at once by an italicized sub-title to "Jonesboro," and describes (p. 220) Hood's attack upon the army of the Tennessee (now under Gen. Howard) at this place, twenty-odd miles south of Atlanta, on August 31. The author then incidentally returns (p. 221) to the battle of Atlanta and McPherson's death, apparently only to account for the transfer of Gen. Howard to the army of the Tennessee, which he says was "much to the dissatisfaction of Gen. Hooker, who considered himself overslaughed and ill treated, and who threw up the command of the Fourth Corps, to which Gen. Stanley was at once promoted." Hooker did not command the Fourth Corps, but the Twentieth. It was Howard who was replaced by Stanley. Hooker was succeeded by Slocum.

In following the investment of Atlanta, we are told (p. 222) that

> "there was a very severe fight at Ezra Church, just outside the city, and it was evident to Sherman that, with the very strong fortifications and heavy guns, it was proof against assault, and must either be taken by regular approaches or else he must have recourse to his former tactics and turn the position. He chose the latter and raised the siege in front of the town."

The battle at Ezra Church (July 28) was not an attack by Sherman on the Atlanta fortifications, and had nothing to do with proving that they could not be taken. It was an assault on Sherman's lines of investment by Hood, who got terribly punished. Sherman did not raise the siege or make the turning movement till a full month later.

We have next a repetition of the assault by Hood on the army of the Tennessee at Jonesboro, which is now placed "on the 31st of July," following up the last error and showing that the author connected it closely with the affair at Ezra Church. There were not two such attacks near Jonesboro, but only one, and that on the 31st of August.

We then learn that the causes which induced Hood to evacuate Atlanta were the cutting of his southern communications, and the fact that the town was "vigorously shelled in front by Thomas" (p. 223). The town was not shelled at that time. The Twentieth Corps had retired northward to the Chattahoochee entirely out of artillery range, and Thomas, with the rest of the army of the Cumberland, was at Jonesboro, twenty miles south of the city.

When Hood showed signs of a purpose to move northward on Sherman's lines of communication at the beginning of October (the date given is probably a misprint), the statement is made that "Thomas was directed to occupy Chattanooga with the army of the Cumberland, while the armies of the Ohio and the Tennessee were directed to move in concert and cover his rear." Less than a quarter of the army of the Cumberland was sent to Chattanooga, all three of the armies operated actively under Sherman against Hood, and Thomas in person went to Nashville, as the author subsequently notices on p. 309.

It is next stated that "on the 20th of September, Hood moved from Lovejoy Station, following on the heels of Thomas" (p. 228). Lovejoy station was nearly forty miles south of Atlanta, in and about which the whole of Sherman's army was, during the interval in the campaign. Thomas and his army were in Atlanta itself. They rested quietly there during September. Hood moved west from Lovejoy to Palmetto, not north, and when the active work of October began, the army of the Cumberland, with the other armies, was on his heels - he was not on theirs. Then it is said that "when Sherman was about to start on his famous march" to the sea, Thomas was instructed "to fall back rapidly towards Nashville and there put himself in condition for a new advance" (p. 229). Thomas had no such instructions. He was told to concentrate his forces at or near Columbia, fifty miles south of Nashville, and "go at" Hood.

On page 231 the army of the Ohio is said to be a different organization from the Twenty-third Corps. The corps was part of that army. On page 244 we are told that Thomas's first thought on October 3 had been to hold the line of Duck River in middle Tennessee against Hood, "but the enemy was so close at his heels that the scheme was abandoned," and he determined to await Hood at Nashville. The fact was that it was not till the last week of November that Hood approached the line of the Duck River. The mistaken notion that Hood was chasing Thomas from the time he left Lovejoy Station here reappears. There was a lively little campaign in Georgia, not Tennessee, in October.

Again, in the same connection, we are told that "on October 30 the Twenty-third Corps had begun its march to join Thomas at Nashville, and Hood followed in what proved to be a very rapid pursuit." Hood thus seems to be on everybody's heels; but it is a mistake. Schofield started with the Twenty-third Corps from Georgia when Hood was at Tuscumbia, near the Mississippi line, with the whole breadth of the State of Alabama between. Schofield moved directly towards Hood, not away from him, some two hundred miles. It would be difficult to confuse the events of that period more completely than the author has done. The Fourth Corps had immediately preceded Schofield in this same movement towards Hood, and the two corps were united under Schofield at Pulaski, thirty-three miles south of Duck River, before Hood crossed the Tennessee. They in fact made their first stand at Duck River from the 24th to the 29th of November, where the author places Thomas with Hood close at his heels in the beginning of October.

It is assumed (pp. 244, 245) that the Fourth Corps was with Thomas at Nashville, that Schofield collected "the Union troops which had been scattered throughout" southern Tennessee, and with these and the Twenty-third Corps retreated to Columbia, where he was joined by the Fourth Corps (p. 246). Instead of this, the Fourth Corps was first at Pulaski, Schofield joined it with part of the Twenty-third Corps, and did not collect the scattered troops (post garrisons), for he was not authorized by Thomas to do so.

On page 247 it is said that when Schofield's army reached Franklin, the field of the bloody battle of the 30th of November, "with both flanks posted on the Harpeth River, Schofield's forces occupied the old intrenchments there." There were no old intrenchments there, and Schofield's men made their own. There was a small enclosed work on the north side of the river, which had been built the year before to protect the railway bridge, but this cut no figure in the battle, which was fought on the south side. The suppression of the part of the officers and men of the Twenty-third Corps in the battle was a *suggestio falsi* begun by Van Horne. More recent publications have given the opportunity for correction, of which the author has not availed himself. The approaching publication of the forty-fifth volume of the Official Records will end this perversion of history.

On pages 267-268 events are given as part of the first day of the battle of Nashville (December 15) which, so far as accurate, belong to the second day. The same, in a somewhat different version, appear on p. 271 in the account of the fighting on the 16th, where they belong.

It will be seen that the things we have thus pointed out are not trifles or possible slips of the pen. They go to the very essence of a consistent conception of the campaigns. When the author is thus at sea in his collection of authorities and abridgment of more voluminous accounts, he destroys the weight which otherwise his judgments might have when he concludes that Thomas's military grasp of the situation and capacity as a commander were greater than Grant's or Sherman's. No one can affirm that whose comprehension of the military events is not accurate, lucid, and consistent. Such a one must necessarily appear to be only the echo of the opinions of a coterie of extreme partisans.

The Private Life of the Romans. With numerous illustrations. By Harriet Waters Preston and Louise Dodge. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 1893.

An elementary book on the private life of the Romans has long been needed for the use of schools and the lower classes in colleges. There has been practically nothing in English (except the dictionaries of antiquities) later than Metcalf's translation of the first edition of Becker's 'Gallus,' and the more recent works in German are unfortunately sealed books to most of our young students. In the present little volume the editors have followed Marquardt pretty closely, although they have also used Friedländer as well as Göll's revision of the 'Gallus.' The subjects of the six chapters are the Family; the House and Everyday Life; Children, Slaves, Guests, etc.; Food and Clothing; Agriculture; and Travel and Amusements. Tables of weights, measures, money, etc., are also given. No pretence is made to originality or completeness, but the object of the book is to offer useful and interesting information upon a variety of topics without going deeply into any one, and (most difficult of tasks) to make the Romans seem to the boy living beings like ourselves, instead of creatures who spent their lives in constructing syntactical puzzles. The editors may be congratulated upon a work well done. Their book, in spite of its condensed treatment, is no mere marshalling of facts; it is readable, interesting, and in the main reliable. It deserves a place in the library of every good classical school, and, standing alone as it does in its field, it will probably enjoy a large sale. This is why we shall depart from our usual custom in the case of elementary works, and, instead of noticing it briefly, point out some blemishes which should be removed in the next edition.

To begin with the illustrations. Of these there are a dozen full-page photogravures and forty woodcuts in the text. The former are all pretty well executed except the view of the Roman house (after Schill), in which it is impossible to read the names of the different parts. Among the cuts two or three are indistinct in outline and features. For all these, new pictures should be made. The cut called a "Ro-

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man Bath from an Ancient Painting" should be struck out altogether. It is not ancient at all, but was long ago shown to have been drawn in the sixteenth century. This brings us to the sources of the pictures in general. More than half of them come from Rich's Dictionary, and it was scarcely worth while to reproduce so much from an old book in such common use. Moreover, Rich hardly ever gives his sources with exactness, and one often entertains the gravest doubts about the authenticity of his pictures. To refer to Rich, therefore, as the editors do in the case of about half of their cuts, is of little use to the earnest teacher or student who wants to know the exact place in which the ancient work was found. For the other half (with four or five exceptions) no sources whatever are given. These matters are easily remedied, and it would not be difficult to replace many of the cuts from Rich with others of more interesting and more ancient works. It is a pity, too, that the editors should help to perpetuate the old myths that the seated female statue in the Capitol represents the elder Agrippina, or that the Torlonia Livia is anything more than an idealization from a Greek work centuries older than the time of the first empress.

Coming now to the text, we find in the description of the marriage procession the statement that of the bride's escort (the *patrimi* and *matrimi*) "one carried her rock [why not say *distaff*?] and spindle, while the other two bore torches." But Festus, our only informant, says that one carried a torch while the other two led the bride. The spinning implements were carried by other attendants. From Festus also it is clear that it was rather a *coif* than a *net* which was used to confine the bride's hair on the night before her wedding. Another liberty is taken with an author's language when the editors say that Tacitus tells us that the ancestors of Drusus *walked* in his funeral train. The word of Tacitus is *spectarentur;* we know of only one passage in an ancient writer that lends any support to the common belief that the ancestors went on foot instead of in vehicles. But Propertius is hardly to be set against Polybius, Silius, Servius, and probably Tacitus himself, who uses *antelatæ* in his account of the funeral of Junia. Then, again, is there any ancient authority for the statement that the wearers of the *imagines* "strove to impersonate the distinguished dead in speech and action"? Are not the editors thinking of the Mime who sometimes impersonated the dead man at his own funeral? And why is it not clearly stated that this whole business of the *ius imaginum* was a very limited prerogative?

In three or four places where prices are mentioned, the amounts in Roman money are reduced to our standard, and upon this is based comment upon the comparative value of the articles in question then and now. This is the method of procedure common in such books, but it is extremely rough and often misleading; for the cheapness or dearness of an article is of course relative to the cost of other articles at the time in question, and hence the value of money can be determined only by comparison of many prices—lines of argument which the editors seem to have overlooked. For instance, they call the dollar a month paid by pupils in primary private schools a very mean sum. But on another page they show that all the privileges of the magnificent Roman baths could be had for about half a cent. A consideration of what can be got nowadays with one two-hundredth of the monthly payment made by a pupil in a private school makes it look as though the Roman schoolmaster was not at all badly paid, and shows that the interesting question is what the money will buy, not the intrinsic value of the coin.

A few briefer criticisms: there is no ancient authority for the statement, made three times, that the *solea* was ever worn by horses, though we know that it was worn by other beasts of burden and draught. It is at least doubtful whether *atrium* is derived from *ater*. The abbreviation HS. and the term *nummus* are used (pages 52, 118), but not explained. Of misprints we observe *ass* twice for *as* (page 140), *aatim* for *datatim* (page 155). The provincialism "gotten" appears on page 30. The editors' intention is to mark the quantity of every long vowel in Latin words; we note that long *o* final is left unmarked half-a-dozen times, as well as the *a* in *mansio* on page 138. One subject on which hardly a word is said is that of religion. It deserves a few pages, for one never thinks of a Roman house without its household gods. The index should be made much fuller.

The Land of Poco Tiempo. By Charles F. Lummis. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893. 8vo, pp. 310.

With but few exceptions, the eleven sketches of which this volume is composed are descriptive of certain phases of life among the different classes or races that make up the native population of New Mexico. To one of these classes, the phrase *poco tiempo* ("pretty soon"), or, rather, the idea it conveys, is supposed to be peculiarly applicable; and there seems to be no doubt that it paints, in a word, the indifference with which our Spanish-American fellow-citizen is said to look upon any attempt at what we regard as an improvement of his condition. At all events, like *mañana* in Spain, it is his answer to any request that calls for exertion of mind or body; and to this extent it is certainly descriptive. But, while admitting this, it is well to remember that these nineteenth-century philosophers can be found only in one portion of the population, and that even in it the exceptions are by no means rare. Outside of it, we have the Pueblo, who, judging from his style of living, cannot be included in the list; and the same is true of the Apache, and, we may add, of his Navajo kinsman, of the former of whom we are told (p. 185) that "he is now a peaceful farmer, learning the lessons of civilization as fast as the aboriginal man can learn them."

In all this portion of his work our author follows Bandelier; and save for an over-indulgence in the use of superlatives, and an occasional hasty generalization, he is thoroughly satisfactory. His theme, in a general way, is Indian civilization, and his sketches of some of its phases are of interest as social studies, aside from their ethnological value. Especially is this true of the account of the condition, form of government, etc., of the Pueblos—those "home-loving tillers of the soil" who were "farmers, irrigators, and six-story-house builders" long before the time of Columbus, and whose trade (p. 37) in salt, buffalo hides, turquoise, cotton mantles, etc., extended, even in those early days, from Eastern Kansas to Northern Mexico. Republicans, too, they were before our government was established; and though they have been citizens (p. 8) of the United States since the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, in 1848, they still keep up their old forms and have not yet become politicians and office-seekers. Literally (p. 45) the office, among them, seeks the man, and, when he is found, it is sometimes necessary, even in the case of a governor, "to throw him into the *calaboz* for a few days" by way of persuading him to accept the high position to which he has been chosen. In a word, considered socially and politically, these people seem to have built up in a rude fashion, and by a path far removed from communism, a number of miniature republics in which crime (p. 41) and poverty (p. 29) are practically unknown. Probably nowhere else on the globe can there be found nine thousand people, selected at random, of whom as much can be said, or among whom the average of physical comfort is so general and so high.

Besides these papers, there are others. as, for instance, those upon Folk Songs and the Penitent Brothers, which treat of certain features in the life of the Spanish-American portion of the population. With the former of these sketches we do not propose to concern ourselves, for the reason that the songs, interesting no doubt as the expression of feelings that are common everywhere and to everybody, can hardly be classed as "folk" songs, using that term in its technical sense. The account of the Penitent Brothers, however, cannot be dismissed in this summary fashion, as the order or brotherhood is, in its present condition, a practical survival of the Flagellants; and in so far as it copies their methods it furnishes a sad example of the depth to which a worthy order may sink. As originally constituted, it was a branch of the Franciscans, and its object was religious study and conversation, but in the years that have elapsed since its introduction into New Mexico, it has fallen so far from its high estate that the scourge, the cross, and other penitential devices of like character are made to take the place of conduct as a means and an evidence of sanctification. At one time the order was numerous, but, coming under the ban of the Church, it has dwindled away until there is now but one hamlet in the territory—San Mateo—where the observances are kept up with anything like their ancient severity; and even here the victim is tied on the cross and not nailed to it (pp. 84, 99, 106), as was customary as late as A. D. 1890.

As might be expected in an order of this character, its rules are kept secret, though some of them have become known. Thus, for example, crimes against the persons or property of strangers are unnoticed, but if a Penitent injures a brother in any particular, he is severely punished. Sometimes this supervision extends to the domestic affairs of a member, and an instance is given in which a certain individual was "buried up to his neck" during the whole of one night for having beaten his wife. Another rule, which might be introduced with advantage elsewhere in our country, permits no married man to become a member without the consent of his wife. She cannot join, though a few years ago she could have done so. But, though women are no longer eligible, and consequently do not use the scourge, walk on cactus thorns, and otherwise publicly "discipline" themselves, they are allowed to take part in the processions; and it is of interest as showing the hold the institution has upon the people, as well as being "a cynical commentary upon our mission work," that one of the most conspicuous figures in the procession described by our author (p. 95) was the Mexican wife of the Presbyterian missionary then stationed at San Mateo.

In conclusion, it gives us pleasure to call attention to the handsome style in which this volume is published. The paper is good, the type large, and the illustrations, of which there

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are a number, are taken from photographs, and, what is more to the point, they illustrate. In the accounts of Acoma and of the different sites of Cochiti, they are used to great advantage; and, last but not least, they help us to a clear idea of the ruined Tabira—the legendary Gran Quivira of the early records—and the other "cities that were forgotten."

The Partridge. [The Fur and Feather Series. Edited by Alfred E. T. Watson.] Longmans, Green & Co. Illustrated..

THE term partridge, as applied in this country, is susceptible of different significations according to locality. In the Northern and Western states a ruffed grouse is called a partridge, while in the States of the South that title is accorded to the quail. The English or European partridge is a distinct bird not indigenous to this continent; in size it occupies a position between our Northern quail and ruffed grouse. To the present volume three writers have each contributed a paper—the Rev. H. A. MacPherson on the natural history of the partridge, A. J. Stuart-Wortley on its shooting, and George Saintsbury on its cookery. The two first, while admirable in their way, offer nothing which has not been recorded time and again.

The third paper—that of Mr. George Saintsbury, on the cooking of the partridge—may arouse a languid interest among our gastronomic connoisseurs, inasmuch as, within the past few years, there have been large importations of English partridges into this country; one single invoice during the winter of last year amounting to 400 dozen, or 4,800, of these birds. It is unfortunate that Mr. Saintsbury was not better equipped, technically, for the undertaking of his performance. Like most of his countrymen, he has wisely and promptly abandoned the culinary formulas of his own land and sought inspiration from those of the French; yet in these he has chosen badly, as he has suggested for the cooking of the partridge methods which are not only entirely beyond the resources of average English and American households, but even of those which aspire to a higher plane of culinary achievement. The flesh of the English or European partridge is essentially dry. To supplement this, without impairing the natural aroma of the bird, through the most simple and direct treatment, is the culmination of gastronomic endeavor. In no wise does Mr. Saintsbury indicate how this may be accomplished. He has suggested only in a vague and perfunctory manner ways of cooking the bird, with no details as to their direct application. Under these conditions, Mr. Saintsbury's contribution to the book under notice is of no practical value whatsoever.

The illustrations which accompany the text are of superior merit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Superfluous Woman. Cassell. $1.
Boyden, W. C. A First Book in Algebra. Boston: Silver, Burdette & Co. 60 cents.
Brown, W. F. Uncle Rob's Baby. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Cajori, Prof. Florian. A History of Mathematics. Macmillan. $3.50.
Cheney, W. T. An Apocalypse of Life. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Duysters, G. F. A Senator at Sea. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Eaton, Abbie F. Riehl's Das Spielmannskind und Der stumme Ratsherr. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Edwards, Emilie. A Royal Heiress. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 50 cents.
Fanshawe, Reginald. Two Lives: A Poem. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Firebaugh, Mrs. Ellen M. The Physician's Wife. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co. $1.25.
Geikie, Rev. Cunningham. Landmarks of Old Testament History. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Geikie, Rev. Cunningham. New Testament Hours. Vol. I., The Gospels. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
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Gosse, Edmund. The Jacobean Poets. Scribners. $1.
Gray, Maxwell. The Last Sentence. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Harland, Marion. Mr. Wayt's Wife's Sister. Cassell. $1.
Höhnel, Lieut. L. von. Discovery of Lakes Rudolph and Stefanie. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.00.
Martin, B. E. In the Footprints of Charles Lamb. Scribners. $1.50.
Kent, Winifred. Sell Not Thyself. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Kimball, R. B. Undercurrents. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Maclaren, Rev. Alexander. The Psalms. Vol. II. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Mozoomdar, P. C. The Spirit of God. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Nourse, H. S. History of the Town of Harvard, Mass. Harvard, Mass.: Warren Hapgood.
Oberholtzer, E. P. The Referendum in America. Philadelphia: The Author.
Pope, G. W. Journey to Mars. G. W. Dillingham.
Rand, McNally & Co.'s Enlarged Business Atlas and Shippers' Guide. Rand, McNally & Co. $7.50.
Ram, Mrs. Abel. The Little Sisters of the Poor. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Sabatier, Paul. Vie de S. François d'Assise. 4th ed. Paris: Librairie Fischbacher; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Sand, George. Fadette. G. H. Richmond & Co. $2.
Sand, George. Marianne. Henry Holt & Co. 30 cents.
Scheffel, Joseph Victor von. Ekkehard. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Schuckburgh, E. S. Cicero's Laelius. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Spalding, Prof. V. M. Guide to the Study of Common Plants. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 85 cents.
Stevans, Prof. C. M. The World's Congress of Religions. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Taft, Prof. L. R. Greenhouse Construction. Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
The Egyptian Harp Girl. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
The Little Old Man: A Story. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen.
The *Youth's Companion*. 1893. Boston: Perry Mason Co.
Walsh, Marie. Romance of a Dry Goods Drummer. Mascot Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Watts, H. E. The Christian Recovery of Spain. [Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
West, A. S. The Elements of English Grammar. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Wilson, Prof. C. B. Riehl's Burg Neideck. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Wood, Henry. The Political Economy of Natural Law. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
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